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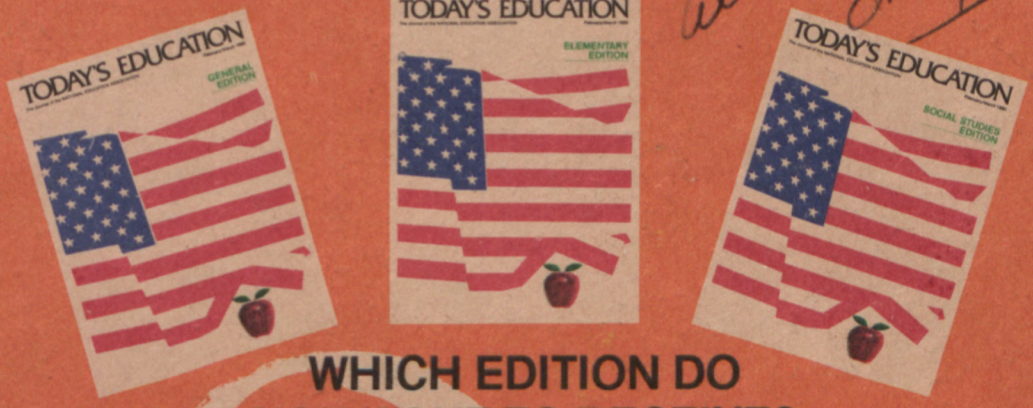
The Journal of the NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

September/October 1979



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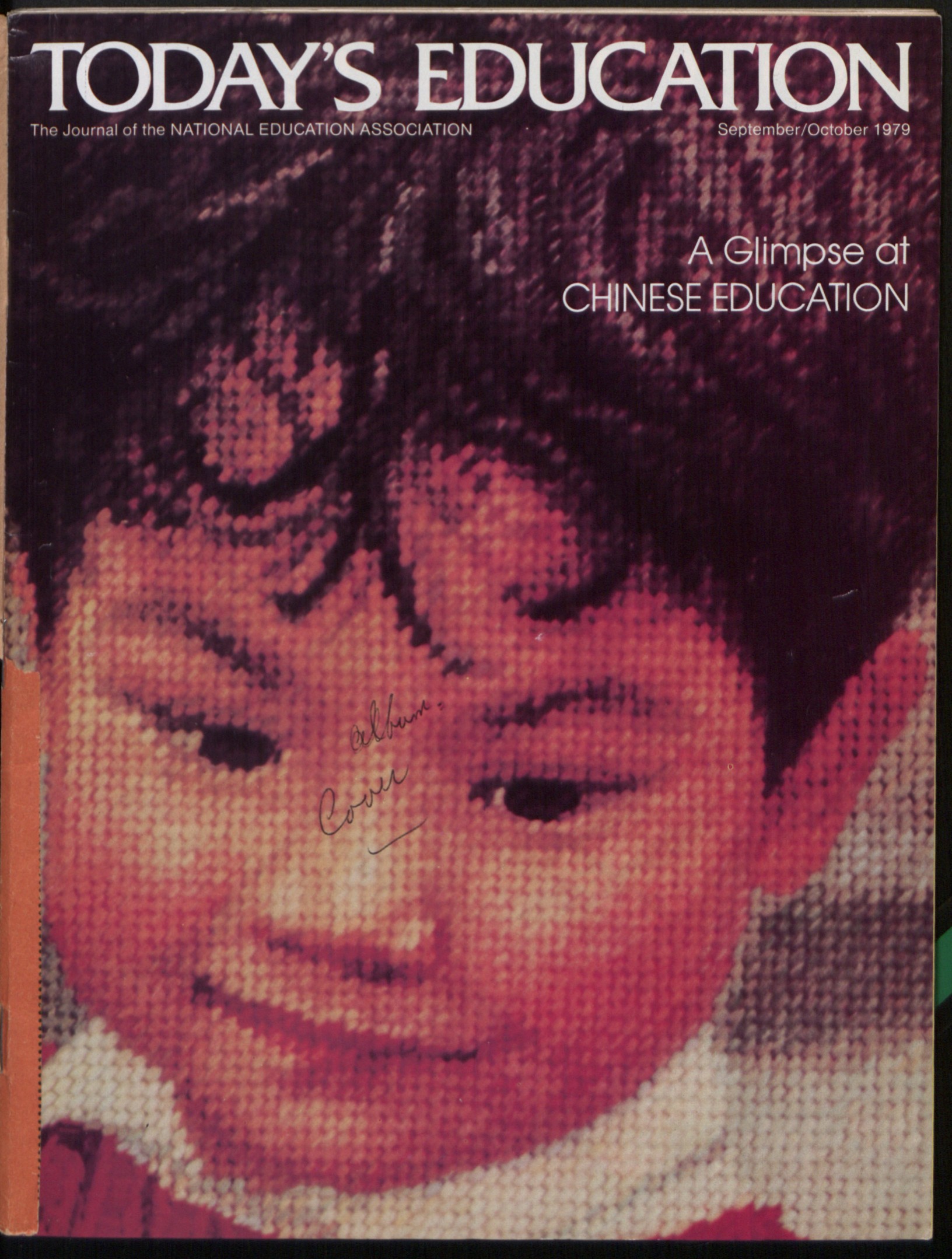
A Glimpse at CHINESE EDUCATION



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In This Issue

As you have no doubt noticed, this month's cover is a "double-header." It consists of an overcover and an undercover.

The overcover announces the publishing on an experimental basis of specialized editions of *Today's Education* starting with the February-March 1980 issue. Purpose of the editions is to serve better the specialized pedagogical interests of our diverse NEA membership.

As the overcover indicates, beginning in February-March, *Today's Education* will publish three editions—a general edition, an elementary edition, and a social studies edition. In subsequent years, additional specialized editions may be produced.

But the overcover does more than just announce this new membership service. It carries a postage-paid postcard with your mailing label attached to it. Please read the overcover carefully, and note that you should *not* mail the card to us *if* we have assumed correctly which edition you will want to receive.

After you have torn off the overcover, you will find the smiling face of a small Chinese boy—as rendered in Chinese needlework. Our photographer, Joe DiDio, captured this striking piece of art when it and other examples of Chinese handicraft were featured in a National Geographic Society exhibit.

This undercover serves to introduce an article by Elizabeth E. Yeary titled "A Glimpse at Chinese Education." Assistant Editor Yeary, a former social studies teacher, and a group of NEA members spent 14 days in China last fall observing the educational system. Although she doesn't claim to be an expert in Chinese education, her observations—and those of some members of the group—about Chinese schools may interest you.

She reports that the subject of politics commands a tremendous amount of attention in Chinese schools. Evidences of political education, as the Chinese call it, are everywhere.

Our lead article in this issue is on the timely topic of "Teaching and Learning Basic Skills." In the article, former Commissioner of Education Harold Howe II says, "While there may be disagreement about whether our schools have deteriorated, there is no reason for disagreement about the importance of doing the thinking needed and providing the resources required to help the schools do a better job."

He then states "Howe's 10 Commandments for Improving Learning." Don't miss them.

The 14-page special feature in this issue is about teaching writing at every level. English teacher Brooke Workman introduces the feature and states that perhaps the lesson of "The Great American Writing Crisis" is that writing can be taught—and writing, *broadly defined,* should be taught.

Following this introduction, eight other classroom teachers in various subject matter areas and at various levels tell how they teach writing. Some of their classroom-tested tips may be helpful to you.

The special feature ends with a descriptive list of eight writing projects in various parts of the country that are helping teachers learn more about teaching writing. You may want to investigate a project near you.

Another timely topic in this issue is discussed by Marian S. Clayton in "Religious Cults." What should teachers know—and do—about them?

The author says, "Surely young people should know—indeed, they have a right to know—what cults are and how they function." She then tells about how some teachers of social studies and other subjects, careful to avoid judging any particular sect, are exposing young people to ideas about cults.

Another major article in this issue is titled "Magnet Schools—Are They the Answer?" Jane Power broadly defines a magnet school as one which is set up to draw students from outside its immediate neighborhood. She then goes on to discuss many ways in which alternative schools may be distinctive, and she describes a few examples.

She adds that magnet schools "are likely to be pressed into the service of integration." Can magnet schools bring about racial balance within a school system? Opinions differ.

Also magnet schools have some problems peculiar to their kind, which the author discusses. She concludes that the desirable element of choice remains and that many parents are convinced that the magnets provide better education.

From *magnet* schools, we turn to another in our series of interviews with *magnetic* teachers. Written by Nancy Needham, this article is titled "Meet Charles Head." He teaches chemistry in Dallas, advises the science club, coaches the scientifically talented, and works with the Discipline Committee, which he set up six years ago.

In the interview, the teacher discusses working through the Committee with "the angry, the disaffected, the ones who are close to dropping out." He also states his views on teaching high school science. He loves teaching and says, "If I had a million dollars, I would still be teaching school."

This issue also contains several articles that speak to these pertinent questions:

How can a college faculty best ensure a wise course for its institution?

Are classes for four-year-olds worthwhile?

What do some parents think about the value of standardized testing?

How can teachers develop their students' love for reading?

What is a good way to teach about the UN?

In addition to more than 20 articles, this issue carries some 14 continuing features, including a new one titled "The Teacher as a Consumer."

May you find many articles and features of interest and help to you in this issue. And don't forget to note the overcover. Check and mail us the card if we have guessed incorrectly about the specialized edition you'd like to receive in 1980.

—WAG.

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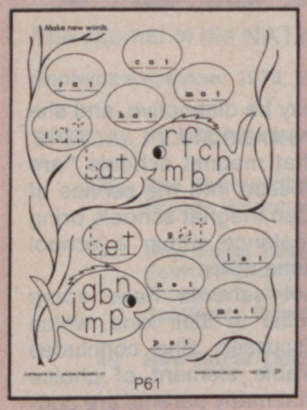

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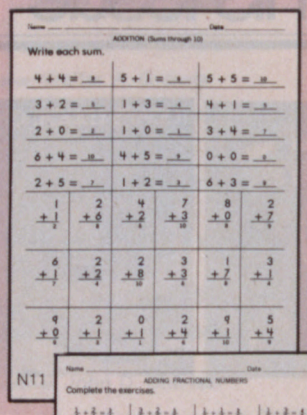

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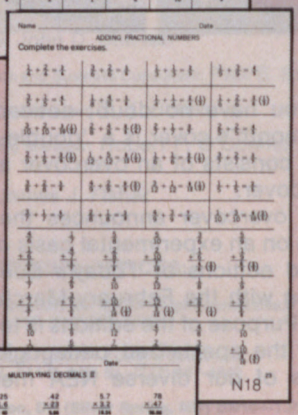

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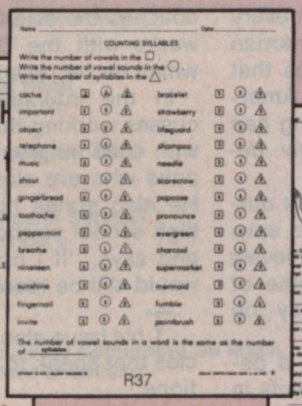

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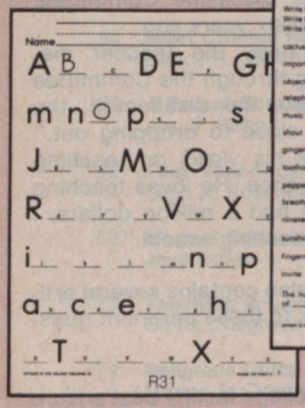

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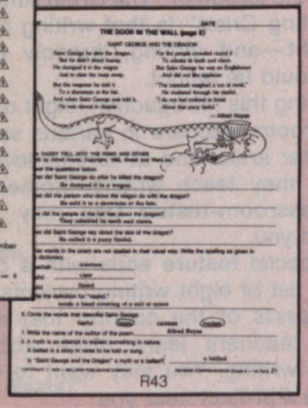

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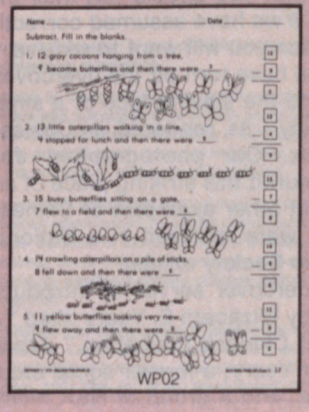

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TE — 9/79

Our Common Mission

By WILLARD H. McGUIRE
President, NEA.

As the new president of the National Education Association, I believe in an organized teacher movement that can generate the energy and assemble the collective wisdom needed to meet the challenge of preserving a high-quality, free public school system for the nation's youth.

I want the national school finance crisis addressed. NEA's voice must be loud and clear when it speaks in the halls of Congress and in the statehouses throughout the land. Let those who propose and support restrictive spending legislation understand that the teachers of this nation will vote to unseat them. Let those who seem willing to abdicate their responsibility for funding education understand that the teachers of this nation will hold them accountable. As president of NEA, I will make adequate funding for public education a major goal of political action.

I also want the problem of school violence to be alleviated. If teachers are to teach and students are to learn, they must be free from fear. A healthy educational climate that nurtures the mind and releases the spirit must also protect the body.

Recently I visited a teacher whose students had beaten her when she attempted to stop a fight. She was in pain. Yet she expressed concern for the students involved.

The conditions were these: an inner-city school, a class of 35 who had been taught the prior year by a series of substitutes, and building administrators who refused to acknowledge problems and expressed no concern for her physical and psychological well-being after the attack and who expected her to resume her teaching duties on the same day she received the beating.

As president of NEA, I will declare violence in the schools a national concern and call for immediate action.

I also want every public school teacher in America to be covered by a contract that has been developed through collective bargaining. As public employees, we deserve the same basic job rights as employees in the private sector. We will not tolerate second-class citizenship. Automobile workers who, under federal law, have the right to bargain have job security; medical, dental, and optical insurance; life insurance; and sick leave and retirement benefits. All teachers should be guaranteed the right to bargain, too. As president of NEA, I will commit myself to securing federal collective bargaining legislation.

I also want every child in this country, including my daughter, Lynn, to have the opportunity for a high-quality, free public education. Effective quality control will come only when teachers themselves are involved with decision makers in determining the nature of teacher education programs, in developing curriculum, in selecting instructional materials, and in formulating policy. As president of NEA, I will be alert to all situations where the teachers' voice should be heard.

These past years of national involvement in the teacher movement have been important ones for me. I now pledge to continue my service to you and to NEA.

I ask you to pause with me for a moment. Sense the energy present in our membership of some 1,800,000 teachers. Feel its power. Sense its composite wisdom. Feel its creativity. Know that it is you multiplied. Let us together focus that energy and that wisdom upon our common mission of preserving public education. □

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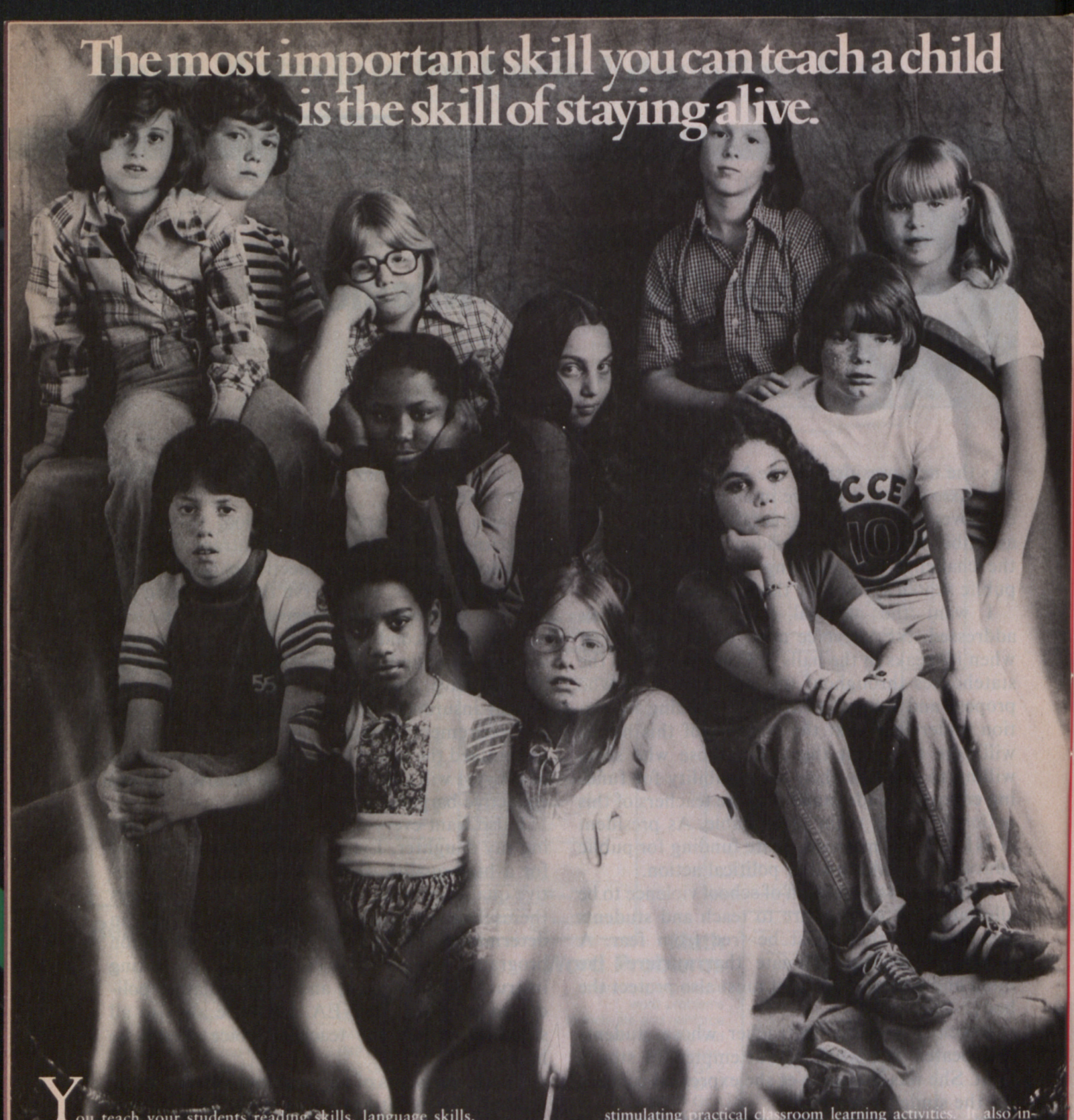

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Research Clues

By JOHN H. HOLLIFIELD
Assistant Director, Center for Social Organization of Schools, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore.

Can creativity be taught?

This review of the literature examines studies of creativity training programs administered in a series of lessons. It concludes that the data do not support the claim that students can be taught to be creative.

Two basic flaws pervade the studies, say the authors. First, the studies use tests of divergent thinking to measure creativity, although there is no evidence that divergent thinking leads to creative accomplishments. Second, the studies do not differentiate between short-term effects and long-term ones. Short-term increases in "creativity" may be due to the student's increased persistence or simply to the student's knowledge that original and clever responses are desired.

The authors of this review suggest that creativity depends on the joint occurrence of many characteristics in the individual as well as on factors in the external situation. Creativity training, they say, is unlikely to influence more than one or two of the characteristics.

See Richard S. Mansfield, Thomas V. Busse, and Ernest J. Krepelka. "The Effectiveness of Creativity Training." *Review of Educational Research* 48: 517-34; No. 4, Fall 1978.

Do different teachers, because of their different behaviors, produce different levels of student achievement?

Researchers' answers to this question range from yes to no to maybe, and two recent articles illustrate the problems. In a review of the literature, Thomas L. Good makes the case that elementary school teachers who apply "direct instruction" have been shown to produce increased academic achievement in their classrooms. In this study, such teachers were those who set and articulate learning goals, actively assess student progress, and frequently make class presentations illustrating how to do assigned work. If they also have managerial ability, they can run their classrooms with a minimum of disruption and a maximum of student task involvement.

In another recent article, James T. Sanders presents a different view. He argues that most teachers have the communication skills and background needed to teach effectively and that most teachers use similar instructional methods because of classroom constraints. Thus it should be no surprise that most teachers are similarly effective and that researchers cannot find large differences in student achievement caused by differences in teachers' behavior in the classroom.

How can these two seemingly different conclusions be resolved? It seems to me that Good's description of direct instruction is essentially a description of the teaching process. The studies that he reviews found, essentially, that teachers who use this process—that is, teachers who teach—help their students achieve more than do teachers who are doing something else, such as engaging in lengthy nontask discussions. This provides some reconciliation with Sanders' viewpoint. Sanders feels that most teachers are indeed involved in the teaching process—applying direct instruction—and are therefore successful to about the same degree.

See Thomas L. Good. "Teacher Effectiveness in the Elementary School." *Journal of Teacher Education* 30: 52-64; March-April 1979. See also James T. Sanders. "Teacher Effectiveness: Accepting the Null Hypothesis." *Journal of Educational Thought* 12: 184-89; No. 3, 1978.

What are the effects of open education on pupil performance?

This study examined 13 kinds of student outcome. It found significant differences on five of them, depending on whether the students received open (i.e., relatively nondirective) instruction or conventional (i.e., relatively directive) instruction, and depending also on whether they were in open-space facilities or in traditional facilities. The sample included 321 schoolchildren in grades one through three, in five schools that were designed to be open-space schools and five designed to be traditional schools.

The study is somewhat unusual in recognizing that one cannot infer from the design of a facility what type of instruction goes on in it. The researchers identified many classes in the open-space schools that were conducted as if they were in traditional classrooms. Similarly, in the traditional schools, many classes were organized on the principles of open education.

The researchers found that reading and math achievement were higher when these subjects were taught in a conventional style, regardless of the type of classroom design. Children taught in open-space classrooms were found to have more confidence about their ability to achieve in school subjects. The authors do not indicate whether such confidence was based on actual achievement, however.

Two student outcomes—convergent mental ability and social virtues—were found to be higher when children were taught either in an open style in a traditional classroom or in a traditional style in an open-space classroom. The authors suggest that this result indicates that these outcomes can be best produced in an instructional program that combines open and traditional elements.

See Ann Lukasevich and Roland F. Gray, "Open Space, Open Education, and Pupil Performance." *The Elementary School Journal* 79: 108-14; November 1978.

Do the attitudes of their teachers toward open education influence affective outcomes for students in traditional schools?

Yes, according to this study of 297 third and fourth grade students in a traditional and in an open-space school. The authors stress that research studies that look for the effects of openness on students will find the effects more easily if they consider teacher attitudes.

The researchers first compared students in the open and the traditional schools on self-esteem and three measures of curiosity. The results favored the children in the open school but weren't conclusive. Then the researchers looked at the outcomes for students in the traditional school whose teachers had favorable attitudes toward openness and for those whose teachers had unfavorable attitudes toward openness. On all four measures, the students of teachers with favorable attitudes scored significantly higher than their counterparts. On self-esteem and on two of the curiosity measures, these

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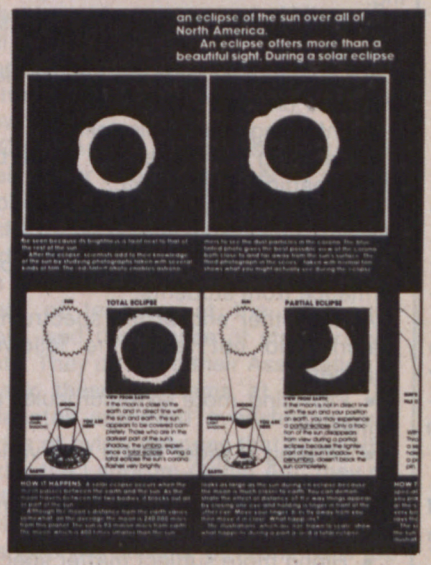
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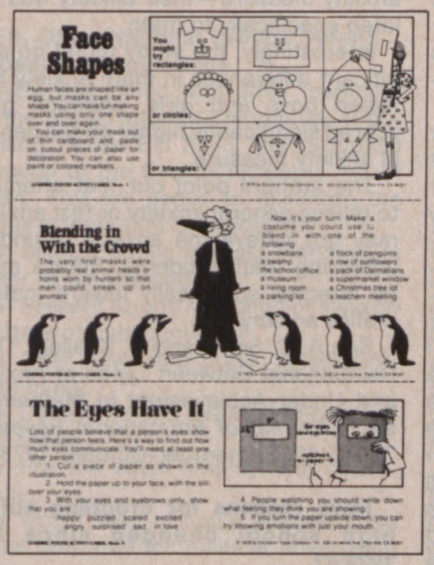

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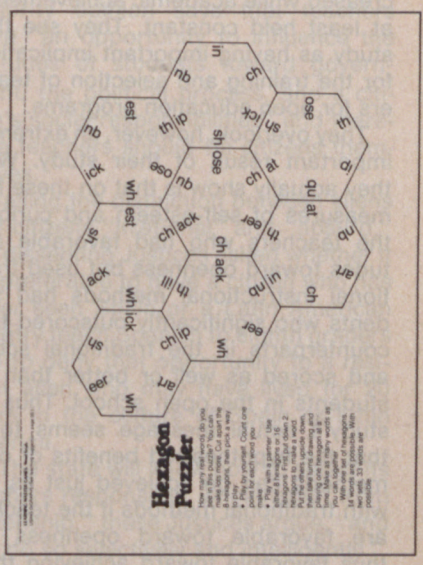

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Research Clues

students scored as well as the students in the open school. On a third curiosity measure, they scored significantly higher than the open-school students.

The authors feel that a good case can be made for open education and open schools if affective outcomes such as self-esteem and curiosity can be increased while academic achievement is at least held constant. They see their study as having important implications for the training and selection of teachers for open education programs.

They overlook, however, an extremely important result of their study. What they actually show is that on these four measures of self-esteem and curiosity the teachers who had favorable attitudes toward openness but used traditional instructional methods had students who significantly outscored their counterparts in the traditional school and scored as well or better than the students in the open school. Thus the study's actual message seems to be that the hypothesized benefits of open methods can be achieved just as well with traditional methods if the teachers are favorable toward openness and thus favorable toward achieving these outcomes.

See Susan F. Elias and Jeffrey W. Elias. "Open Education and Teacher Attitudes Toward Openness: The Impact on Students." *Education* 99: 208-15; Winter 1978.

Do teacher expectations influence student achievement?

A recent study of 104 third and fourth grade children neither supports nor refutes the idea that teacher expectations influence student achievement. It does, however, show the difficulty of measuring what seems to be a simple concept. The simplicity disappears when all the possibilities have to be considered. As a result, the details of the study are too complex to summarize here.

Nonetheless, readers who get impatient with the seeming inability of educational research to shed light on "simple" issues might take a look at the study. If they do, they are likely to become more sympathetic about the real complexities research involves.

See Sally R. Luce and Robert D. Hoge. "Relations Among Teacher Rankings, Pupil-Teacher Interactions, and Academic Achievement: A Test of the Teacher Expectancy Hypothesis." *American Educational Research Journal* 15: 489-500; Fall 1978.

Do children who underachieve in math have a specific anxiety about math?

Yes. This study of 246 sixth grade students in an intermediate school in New Zealand found that students who underachieved in math scored significantly higher on a math anxiety test than did achievers and overachievers. These students did not score higher on a general anxiety measure or on a test anxiety measure—their anxiety was related specifically to math.

Interestingly, the study found no significant differences in math anxiety between boys and girls, although girls scored significantly higher on the general anxiety measure.

The authors point out that attempts to relieve general anxiety or test anxiety may not relieve the anxiety of underachieving math students. Efforts must be directed specifically toward mathematics anxiety.

See A. C. Sepie and B. Keeling. "The Relationship Between Types of Anxiety and Under-Achievement in Mathematics." *Journal of Educational Research* 72: 15-19; September-October 1978.

Have reasons for dropping out of high school changed since the 1920's?

Definitely, says this review of data from studies made of dropouts in one community in 1924, 1937, 1952, and 1977.

In general, the reasons given for dropping out have changed from economic problems to dislike of school. In 1924 and in 1937, a large percentage of boys said economic problems were their reason for dropping out. In 1924, girls most often cited the need to help out at home, and in 1937, they most often said they dropped out to get married. But by 1952—and even more frequently in 1977—the main reason both boys and girls gave for dropping out was "didn't like school."

The authors also provide a composite picture of the typical 1977 dropout. The dropout has poor grades, is little involved in social activities, and is personally dissatisfied with school in general. The implication for educators is that in trying to prevent students from dropping out, they should concentrate on the personal, affective concerns of students.

See John D. Hewitt and William S. Johnson. "Dropping Out in 'Middletown.'" *High School Journal* 62: 252-56; March 1979.

Teacher Opinion Poll

Attitudes Toward Public Education

Among all the changes that could be made in public schools, teachers are almost unanimous in favoring the following:

- Reducing the number of students in classes
- Educating parents on how to help with their children's education
- Enforcing stricter discipline
- Devoting more attention to the basics—reading, English, etc.
- Enforcing stricter requirements for school and class attendance
- Requiring higher standards of performance from students.

At the other end of the spectrum, a majority do not favor the following changes:

- Providing more extracurricular activities
- Offering a wider range and variety of courses
- Increasing the amount of homework for students
- Hiring more subject matter specialists to help teachers.

These are some of the results of NEA's latest Nationwide Teacher Opinion Poll completed in May 1979. Some other results of the survey are—

When children do poorly in school, teachers are likely to place the blame on the children's home life (81 percent) and not likely to blame the children themselves (14 percent), the teachers (1 percent), or the schools (4 percent).

Even though the media often report that public schools are *not* providing a good education for children, almost two-thirds of the teachers disagree with that contention. Senior high teachers and teachers in the cities are more likely to agree that schools are not providing a good education, whereas elementary teachers and nonwhite teachers are less likely to agree.

Most respondents feel that handicapped students—except those who are mentally retarded or emotionally disturbed—can be placed in regular classes for some of their instruction. In general, most teachers feel schools are doing a good job educating handicapped children.

—NEA Research.

Trends

NEA Meeting Chooses Officers, Rejects Amendments

NEA's 1979 Representative Assembly, meeting in Detroit, elected Willard H. McGuire of Minnesota the Association's 1979-81 president. Bernard J. Freitag of Pennsylvania is the new vice-president; Marty Woodard of Minnesota will serve another term on the Executive Committee; and a new Executive Committee member is Judith M. Owens of New Jersey.

Convention delegates expressed their anger about a number of societal problems, including school violence, attacks by right wing extremists, physical and mental stress that is driving teachers from the classroom, unfair treatment of teachers at the bargaining table, and the misuse of standardized tests. They directed their Association to attack these problems at once. The delegates approved overwhelmingly a series of bylaw changes that bring NEA under the Landrum-Griffin Act; they rejected amendments that would have revised the basis for dues collection and changed the number of terms NEA top officers may serve.

(For further information about the annual meeting, see the *NEA Reporter.*)

Many of World's Children Face Severe Deprivation

Of nearly 1.5 billion children under 15 years of age, 16 percent are undernourished, according to *Children in the World*, published by the Population Reference Bureau. More than 4 out of 10 lack access to effective medical care or to safe water; nearly 3 out of 10 lack adequate housing; and more than 1 in 10 live in slums.

Schools Try Range of Remedies for Energy Shortage

The nation's schools have cut energy use by almost 30 percent since 1974-75, according to a study by the American Association of School Administrators. AASA says such instant methods as turning down thermostats, reducing lighting, and reducing outside air intake save energy.

One tactic that doesn't cut energy use, according to the North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, is closing schools in cold weather. When schools in eight counties were closed for three days, about 75 million more BTU's of power were used in the community than if schools had been open, the Department found. Similarly, a New York State Education Department study concluded closing school "may be counter productive to total saving of energy."

NEA has recommended a film, *The Fourth R*, on using resourcefulness to cut schools' energy consumption. *The Fourth R* is available on loan through the Modern Talking Picture Service, 2323 New Hyde Park Road, New Hyde Park, NY 11040.

NEA, Other National Groups Defend Broadcast Regulations

NEA has joined with other members of the public interest community in opposing House Bill 3333, the proposed revision of the Communications Act of 1934. This bill seeks to eliminate the requirements that broadcasters:

- Meet a public interest standard in order to be licensed
- Present opposing points of view on matters of public interest
- Offer news and public affairs programming
- Determine and respond to community needs
- Provide equal employment opportunity.

It would also virtually eliminate the equal time rule for political advertising and allow public noncommercial stations to carry commercial advertising.

The House is expected to act on the bill this fall.

Reach of Bilingual Programs Grows

Federal bilingual education programs are no longer limited to children whose ability to speak English is limited, according to the U.S. Office of Education. The programs may now include children with limited English "proficiency"—those who cannot learn in a regular classroom because they lack any of the necessary skills in the English language: speaking, reading, writing, or understanding.

NEA and International Reading Association Study Reading Problem

The NEA and the International Reading Association are establishing an Institute for the Study of Reading to sponsor a number of short-term, intensive investigations of issues related to reading.

The Institute's first project will be formation of a Commission on Reading Trends in the United States to determine and analyze existing reading trends data; analyze and synthesize the information; evaluate and disseminate the results, including recommendations. The independent Commission will be composed of nationally recognized people drawn from fields such as literature and journalism. Author Alex Haley will serve as the chairman of the Commission.

States May Exclude Aliens from Teaching

States may refuse to certify aliens to teach in public schools, according to a five-to-four Supreme Court decision in the case of *Ambach* v. *Norwick*. The majority opinion says that teachers have "an opportunity to influence the attitudes of students toward government, the political process, and a citizen's social responsibilities" and therefore teachers should be citizens themselves.

Calling the distinction between aliens and citizens "irrational" and "absurd," the dissenting Justices asked whether it is "preferable to have a citizen who has never seen Spain or a Latin American country teach Spanish to eighth graders and to deny that opportunity to a resident alien who may have lived for 20 years in the culture of Spain or Latin America.

"The state will know how to select its teachers responsibly, wholly apart from citizenship," these Justices argue, "and can do so selectively and intelligently."

National Group Cites Good TV Programs

The Association for Children's Television (ACT) has awarded Citations for Continuing Excellence to ABC Afterschool and Weekend specials; *Animals, Animals, Animals; Rebop;* and *Once upon a Classic*. ACT's awards for 1978 went to *30 Minutes* and to 10 locally produced programs.

Young People Rate Schools High, Want More Work

More than half of U.S. young people rate the schools A or B, according to *The Attitudes of America's Youth Toward the Public Schools*, a nationwide survey of youngsters aged 13 to 17 by the Gallup Poll and the Charles F. Kettering Foundation. Two-thirds give their teachers of the 1977-78 school year an A or B. Four in 10 say that they enjoy going to school "very much."

The teenagers have one common complaint: about half of them say students do not have to work hard enough.

AEW Celebrates the Year of the Child

The theme of American Education Week in this International Year of the Child is "Teach All the Children." The

Trends

(continued)

observance will be held November 11 through 17.

Cosponsors of AEW are NEA, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, the American Legion, and the U.S. Office of Education.

For information about ordering the materials NEA has prepared for AEW, write promptly to AEW, NEA Distribution Center, Academic Building, Saw Mill Road, West Haven, CT 06516, or call (203) 934-2669.

Most U.S. Americans Approve Language Learning

Only 30 percent of U.S. Americans have studied a foreign language in school, but 40 percent say they are familiar with another language—most commonly Spanish, French, or German, according to a survey conducted for the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies. Fewer than 1.5 percent claim familiarity with Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, or Russian.

More than three-fourths of those who have studied a foreign language in school find that study worthwhile because it "leads to better awareness and understanding of people from other nations," is "useful for travel," and "increases the ability to read and write English."

More than three-fourths think foreign languages should be offered and 40 percent think they should be required in elementary school. Ninety percent think they should be offered and 47 percent think they should be required in secondary school.

A Million Students Suffer Athletic Injuries

More than 1 million high school and college students suffered injuries and 14 students died in athletic programs in 1975-76, according to a report from the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Varsity football accounted for about 325,000 of the injuries.

The report, *Athletic Injuries and Deaths in Secondary Schools and Colleges, 1975-76*, is based on a study of more than 3,800 schools conducted by HEW's National Center for Education Statistics and the National Athletic Injury/Illness Reporting Service at Pennsylvania State University.

NEA Offers Maehling Fellowships

The NEA's Hilda Maehling Fellowships are annual awards of up to $2,500 for individual teachers, groups of teachers, and local associations.

The winning projects are selected for their potential impact on the Association, teachers, and students. They may concern organizational development, human relations, professional improvement, or tools and techniques for teachers.

Proposals for projects should be submitted by December 1. Winners will be announced the first week in April. For more information, write Hilda Maehling Fellowships, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

Institutions Need Not Substantially Alter Programs To Serve Handicapped

Educational institutions need not "disregard the disabilities of handicapped individuals or make substantial modifications in their programs to allow disabled persons to participate," according to the Supreme Court decision in the case of *Southeastern Community College* v. *Davis*.

The case involved a deaf applicant to Southeastern's nursing program who had been rejected because the college believed that deafness would make it impossible to complete the program or to care safely for patients.

Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, according to the Court, "requires only that an 'otherwise qualified handicapped individual' not be excluded from participation in a federally funded program 'solely by reason of his handicap.' " This indicates "only that mere possession of a handicap is not a permissible ground for assuming an inability to function in a particular context." An institution can thus permissibly take into account a handicap that will in fact make the applicant incapable of functioning in the program involved.

High Court Upholds Affirmative Action in *Weber* Case

The U.S. Supreme Court has ruled that an affirmative action program established by Kaiser Aluminum and Chemical Corporation and the United Steelworkers of America does not violate the prohibition against racial discrimination in Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Half of the places in the program, which trains unskilled Kaiser employees in craft skills, are reserved for Blacks until the percentage of Black craft workers equals the percentage of Blacks in the local labor force.

Brian Weber, a White employee, was rejected for the program while some Blacks with less seniority were accepted. He filed a federal suit on the grounds that Title VII makes it unlawful to "discriminate because of race" in hiring and in selection for training programs. The Supreme Court, however, rejected a literal reading of Title VII, noting the Congressional purpose of "opening employment opportunities for Negroes in occupations which have traditionally been closed to them." The Court found that Title VII was intended as a "spur or catalyst to cause employers and unions to self-examine and to self-evaluate their employment practices and to endeavor to eliminate, as far as possible, the last vestiges of an unfortunate and ignominious page in this country's history."

Teachers Can Help Detect Asbestos Danger

When school officials fail to study and correct health hazards caused by asbestos, NEA encourages local associations to take the lead. The Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) estimates that as many as 10,000 of the nation's 90,000 schools may contain asbestos materials sprayed on school walls, ceilings, and structural components. Danger is greatest from asbestos that is flaking.

EPA's free manual, *Asbestos-Containing Materials in School Buildings*, tells how to survey a school building for asbestos hazards and lists offices throughout the country that will help people concerned about asbestos. EPA also has a toll-free number, 800-424-9065, for requesting the manual or simply information about asbestos hazards in schools. (In the District of Columbia, call 554-1404.)

Programs Offer Work and Study Abroad

Elementary and secondary teachers and college instructors and assistant professors have a chance to teach abroad in the 1980-81 school year under the Fulbright-Hays Act. Also in 1980, a program of summer seminars will be held for teachers of the classics; German; Italian; and world, Asian, or Middle Eastern history and area studies.

Applications are due November 1, 1979. For a brochure and application form, write to the Teacher Exchange Section, Division of International Education, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, DC 20202.

NEA's Office of International Relations offers members a free minicatalog, *Teacher Exchange and Study Abroad: Existing Opportunities*, describing federal and private programs.

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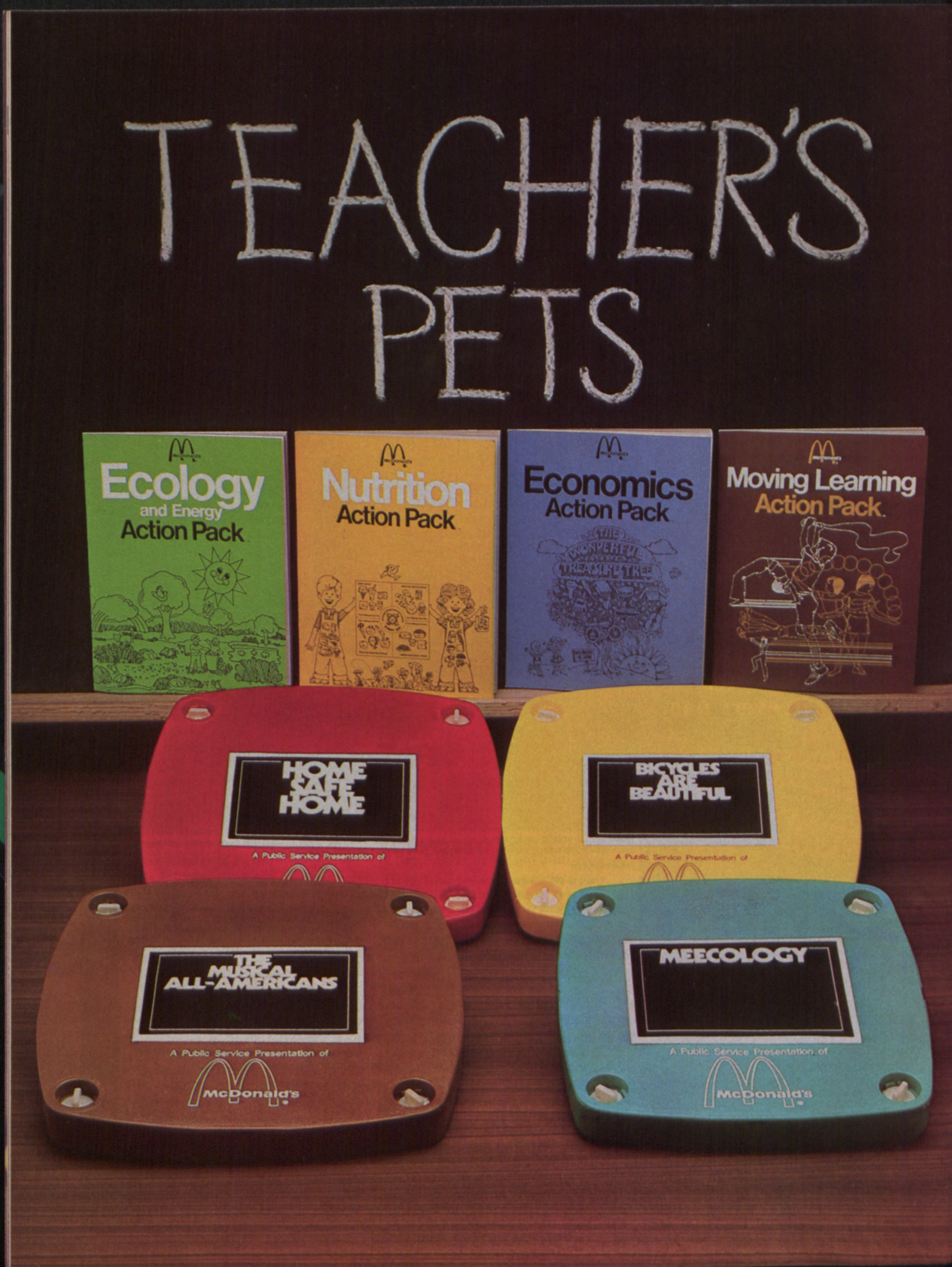
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Letters

Ideas and opinions in this feature are those of the writers and not necessarily of the NEA. "Letters" is primarily a forum for NEA members. If you are currently a member, please paste the mailing label from a recent copy of Today's Education *at the top of your letter. Also indicate your school, position, and home address.*

Discipline

A number of the recommendations to improve discipline cited in "The Discipline Dilemma" (April-May 1979) are good. Many of them, however, require large teacher staffs to implement. Can our penny-poor school systems afford these programs? *Today's Education* would better serve teachers by offering suggestions on improving discipline in bankrupt school systems.

—James H. Wilson, *history teacher, Hampton, Virginia, City Schools.*

If *Today's Education*'s feature on discipline had appeared years, decades, even centuries ago, who can say how history might have been changed?

Had John Dillinger been in a smaller class or gotten some individualized attention, he might have been a banker instead of a bank robber.

Had there been resource people, aides, and social workers to help John Wilkes Booth, we would know him today as a great actor.

Had Judas availed himself of rap sessions and had he had a student representative, the course of Western religion would have been very different.

Had there been special classes for chronically disruptive students way back then, Cain would have grown up with all his brothers.

Today's Education, how did we get along without you?

—Charles M. Breinin, *science teacher, Riverside High School, Buffalo, New York.*

An RV Summer Indeed!

Well, bully for Myrdon Neumann ("We Enjoyed an RV Summer," April-May), who happily spends his summers driving across the United States, getting eight-and-a-half miles to the gallon as he drags six-and-a-half tons of personal possessions, including toilet, TV, and freezer behind him every inch of the way.

Why do Mr. and Mrs. Neumann need all that junk? Why do they have to "climb" the Rockies accompanied by six-and-a-half tons of metal and plastic?

Most disturbing of all is that the six-and-a-half tons of assorted garbage occasionally threatens to go out of control on mountain roads. Does Mr. Neumann ever worry about the family of five in their Volkswagen (the "pup tent" people he refers to) being catapulted into eternity as his cargo of frozen pork chops, dirty bath water, and excrement slams into their car when his electric brakes fail on a mountain road?

No, Mr. Neumann, I hope I don't meet you on the road next summer as you roll merrily along past "enchanting vistas of America." But with the current gas shortage, "Cinderella's coach" will probably remain rooted like an overgrown pumpkin in the Neumanns' back yard.

And you, editors of *Today's Education*, I'm wondering why you would print such an article. Are you actually in favor of such behavior? Are you educators or retailers? For shame!

—Louise Meyer, *writing instructor, Pima College, Tucson, Arizona.*

Taking the Tibbettses To Task

What's Happening to American English? is a complex subject, but I'm afraid Arn and Charlene Tibbetts, the authors of the book, do not convincingly answer the question. [The book is reviewed by Marilyn Duff in the April-May issue.]

I could hardly pay $8.95 for a book which advances the following misconceptions about English instruction and usage:

- The study of traditional grammar helps students to write better.
- Students write less in an elective program than they do in a traditional program.
- The study of structural linguistics encourages a decline in writing and speaking skills.
- Extensive correction of student composition error ensures better writing.
- Creative writing does not contribute to writing skills.

I would question if the Tibbettses have read any recent research in English instruction and usage. Yes, there is a great deal that needs to be done in the field, but I for one would appreciate books which address real, not spurious, issues.

—Leila Christenbury, *English teacher, Roanoke, Virginia.*

(continued on page 87)

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The Teacher and the Law

Teachers Win Financial Awards

If money talks, it's giving lessons in constitutional law to school boards and administrators around the country. Increasingly, juries have awarded substantial monetary relief to teachers for constitutional violations. These judgments are putting school boards and administrators on notice that the Constitution is not only an abstract charter but a contemporary mechanism for procuring guaranteed rights.

The NEA DuShane Fund and state education associations recently have supported a number of suits which brought large financial awards to educators who were victims of unconstitutional behavior.

NEA Deputy General Counsel and DuShane Fund Counsel David Rubin says:

> These jury verdicts reflect perceived unfairness, injustice, and unconstitutional motivations by school authorities in their treatment of the teachers involved. The verdicts show that when facts demonstrate such mistreatment, federal juries respond sympathetically. These jury verdicts, which have included substantial awards imposing personal liability as well as sizable awards against school district treasuries, should have a wholesome deterrent effect in discouraging similar constitutional violations in the future.

Each of these cases, to at least some extent, involved a violation of the First Amendment. Recently, the First Amendment has gained the public's attention in cases regarding journalists' rights to publish or to conceal reporting sources. This issue hardly exhausts the scope of the Amendment's jurisdiction, however. Teachers continuously have used this Amendment to fight unfair treatment as well as to establish definitively those rights to which they are entitled. Thanks to First Amendment protection, teachers enjoy significant protection in their personal and private communications, their exercise of religious beliefs, and their association with others.

While few school boards expressly cite any of these factors as the reasons for punitive action or dismissal, they may couch such reasons in other charges. Fortunately, unconstitutional behavior smells just as rotten by any other name. The alleged rationales may not shield the board from liability. Under a U.S. Supreme Court decision, *Mt. Healthy School District Board of Education* v. *Doyle*, if a teacher can demonstrate that a constitutionally impermissible factor played a substantial role in the school system's decision, the burden is on the school system to prove that the action would have been taken absent the unconstitutional motivation.

Outcomes in recent NEA-state education association suits provide good examples of both the breadth of the First Amendment's protection of teachers and the vulnerability of trumped-up allegations to jury scrutiny.

Iowa teacher Rosa Zoll's case probably comes closest to the general perception of a First Amendment suit, since her problems started with newspaper articles. The newspaper was her hometown paper, and the "articles" were "Letters to the Editor" from Zoll criticizing school policy.

First, her principal admonished Zoll for the letters. Later, Zoll, who had served as a first grade teacher in Allamakee County for 29 years, was informed that she was to be laid off due to declining enrollment. On an objective criteria analysis, Zoll had scored far above the other first grade teachers. The low subjective rating which the school administration gave her had dragged her overall rating down.

Zoll filed suit, charging that although the district needed to lay off teachers, she herself was being dismissed in retaliation for writing the published letters. Zoll's arguments convinced both a jury and the Eighth Circuit Court of Appeals, which heard the case on appeal by the school board. She was awarded back pay, reinstatement, and legal fees.

In its decision, the Eighth Circuit said that among other considerations it took into account the acknowledged displeasure of Zoll's principal and superintendent with her letters and also evidence indicating that they had decided not to renew Zoll's contract even before they analyzed which first grade teachers to lay off.

Millard Simineo's difficulties also started with administrators' complaints about Simineo's criticism of school policy. Simineo, however, had never published any statement about the school district. Rather, his superintendent complained about alleged "snide and snotty comments" made to other members of their small Wyoming community. After a 13-year record of excellent teaching, Simineo started receiving poor evaluations and was denied an automatic salary increase. After a year of consistent harassment by the superintendent, Simineo was dismissed.

He filed suit, charging that the true reason for the low evaluations, denial of salary increase, and dismissal was his engaging in activity protected by the First Amendment. In a decision later upheld by the Tenth Circuit Court of Appeals, Simineo was awarded $60,000 in compensatory damages, $30,000 in punitive damages, and $15,000 in attorneys' fees. Because interest accrued between the initial decision and the appeal, the final award reached approximately $120,000.

Teachers involved in association activity also may suffer unexpected charges of incompetency. Such charges may reflect the school board's annoyance with union activity more than the level of the individual's performance. Organizers are not deprived of constitutional protection just because they become leaders, however. In three recent federal court cases, school boards have had to take substantial dips into their coffers to comply with jury awards to activists in teacher associations.

The contracts of Missouri teachers Gary Burkett and Ron and Sherry Greminger were not renewed after they were the principal activists in a salary dispute with their school board. They had also attempted to affiliate their association with the Missouri National Education Association.

The teachers sued, charging that "there was nothing known to the board which could have caused the nonrenewals except the [organizational] activities." Their First Amendment rights to both freedom of association and freedom of speech had been violated, they said. The jury agreed, awarding them back pay, and the court also ordered their reinstatement and ordered the school board to pay their legal fees. The Eighth Circuit Court of Appeals upheld the verdict, but sent the case back to the lower court with instructions to increase the award. At that point, the three settled with the school district for a total of approximately $84,000.

Patsy Goss, a professor at San Jacinto (Texas) Junior College, was active in the formation of a local chapter of the National Faculty Association and the Texas Junior College Teachers Associa-

(continued on page 20)

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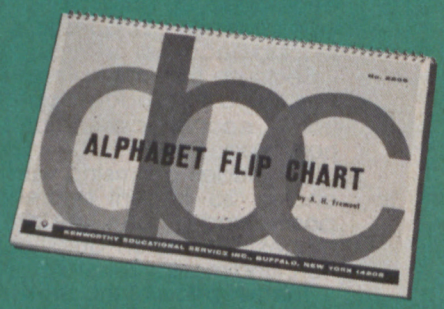

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The Teacher and the Law

(continued from page 18)

tions. She also worked in her husband's campaign for a seat on her College's Board of Regents. Then the College refused to renew her contract.

Goss went to federal court, claiming that her termination was a result of her activities. At the trial, evidence was disclosed that the college president had asserted that Goss was nonrenewed because of her "creating or trying to create ill will or lack of cooperation . . . with the administration"; Goss's department chair had given her an inaccurately low objective criteria rating; administrators had expressed displeasure at Goss's participation in faculty organizing and her husband's campaign. She had already been reinstated; a federal jury awarded her $23,400 in back pay. The award was upheld on appeal.

And in North Dakota, which previously had little teacher litigation in the civil rights area, Serenus Hoffner, a leader in the Hettinger Education Association, received the largest jury award ever made to a public school teacher in that state. Hoffner was granted $15,000 in back pay by a jury which found that the school district had dismissed Hoffner for unconstitutional reasons.

Hoffner negotiated the district's first salary schedule for teachers. After the agreement was reached, he became the victim of harassment and eventual dismissal by the school board. The board did not cite his association activity as a basis for the nonrenewal but brought charges against Hoffner for establishing a fund for the wrestling team he coached that was separate from the general student activities fund. The board had long been aware of this fund but made it an issue only after Hoffner had been active in negotiations.

A federal jury found that the grounds and timing of the dismissal supported Hoffner's charge of unconstitutionality.

These teachers, through criticism or association activity, provoked schools into retaliatory action. Wyoming teacher Annabel Stoddard's only "offense," however, was her life-style or perceived life-style. Stoddard was told her nonrenewal resulted from her failure to maintain discipline and her "lack of dynamics." A federal jury, however, found that the true basis was Stoddard's weight, her failure to attend church, and her personal conduct.

(continued on page 25)

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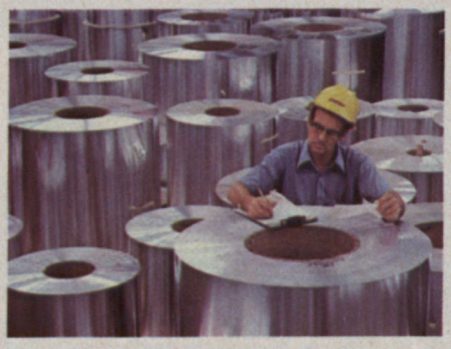

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The Teacher and the Law

(continued from page 20)

Stoddard, a divorced woman, taught in the small town of Cokesville, Wyoming, the majority of whose citizens are Latter Day Saints. The community was distressed by her apparent lack of religion, as well as by its belief that she entertained a man in her apartment (a charge never proven). She was awarded $33,000 in back pay and reinstatement. An appellate court upheld both awards.

School boards should be particularly wary of this stream of cases, since under a relatively recent U.S. Supreme Court decision, *Monell* v. *Department of Social Services of New York,* local governmental entities, such as school boards, may be held financially liable under the 1871 Civil Rights Law, which authorizes monetary relief for the deprivation of constitutional rights. This liability should make boards extremely cautious about undertaking unconstitutional action. Teachers are now aware that rationales fabricated to justify illegal behavior may disintegrate in the courtroom.

Although the teachers in these cases were finally vindicated, they often endured severe financial and emotional stress prior to the final outcomes of the cases. The most significant result of these combined judgments may not be that they granted relief to individuals but that they may deter school officials from taking similar actions against other teachers.

—Barbara A. Stein, *NEA Teacher Rights.*

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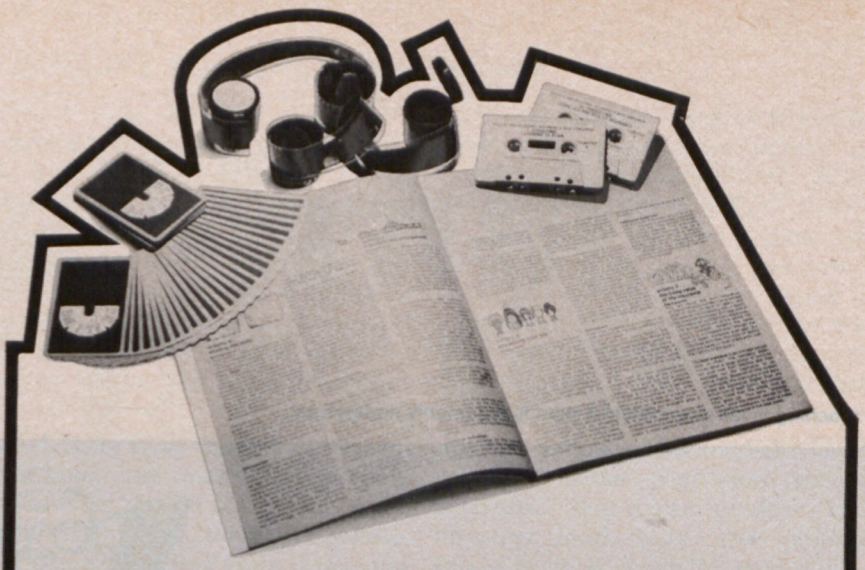

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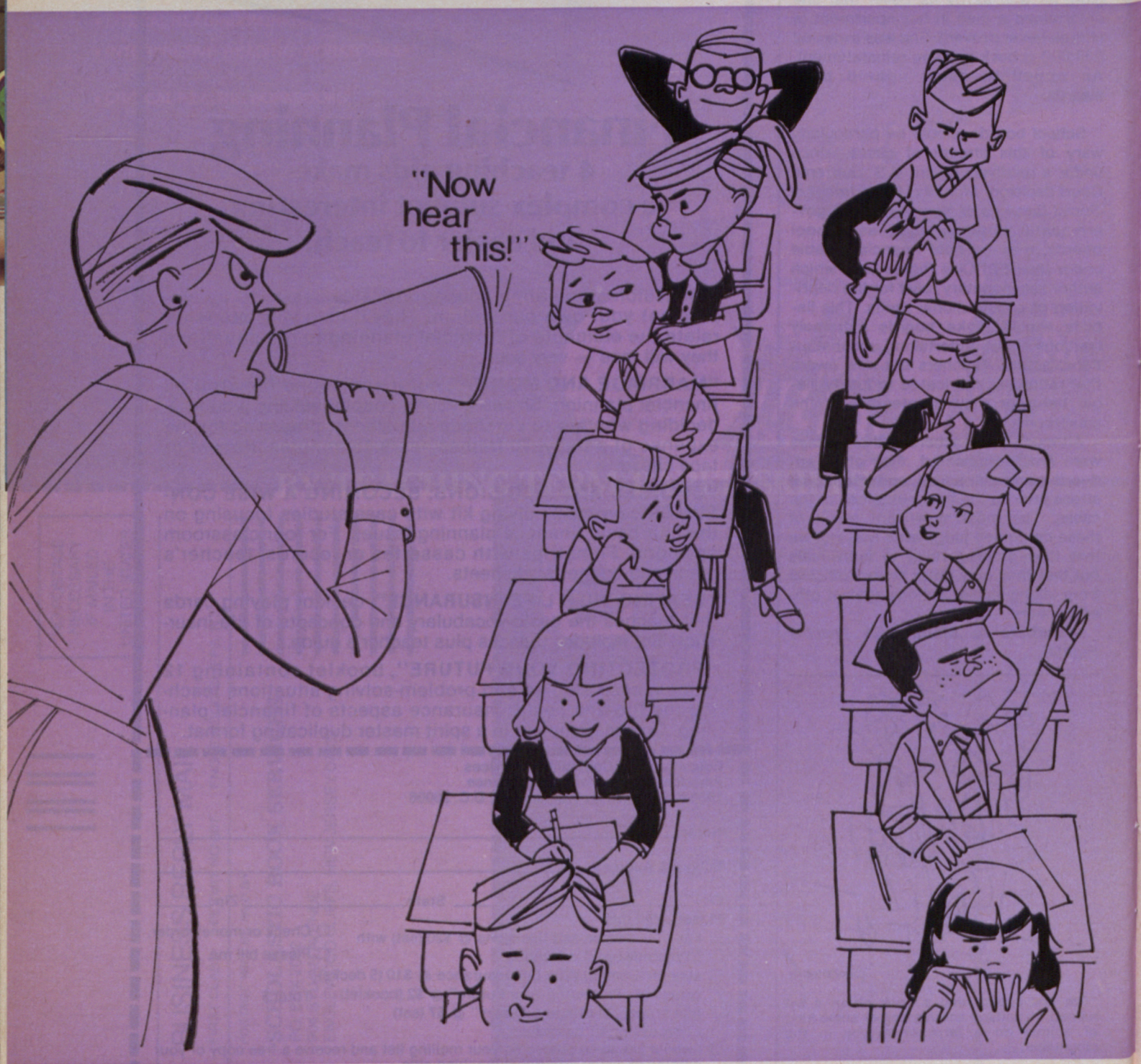

Learning Skills

Most of what I think about teaching and learning basic skills comes from secondary sources and is not the result of personal research on these matters. Although clearly not an expert, I have read some of the literature on learning, served in a variety of assignments in schools and other organizations concerned with education, and engaged in some work specifically focused on learning problems.

Two years ago, I served as vice-chairman on the College Entrance Examination Board's special study of the decline in test scores. On the basis of all this experience, I can summarize in three short statements my opinions on teaching and learning basic academic skills in schools.

1. The significance of the much reported decline of learning is exaggerated. The decline is not as serious as the media coverage of it suggests. Authoritative research suggests a long-term steady growth in the literacy of America's people.

2. The rush to minimum competency testing will not of itself produce much improvement in learning unless it is accompanied by a number of other activities that will cost additional money. Without these activities, competency testing as a method of improving education will simply hurt a lot of youngsters, particularly those who are poor, Black, or Spanish-speaking.

3. There are good grounds for Americans to have great pride in their schools and good grounds for Americans to call for improvements in the schools.

While there may be disagreement about whether our schools have deteriorated, there is no reason for disagreement about the importance of doing the thinking needed and providing the resources required to help the schools do a better job. Here again, I disclaim special expertise and provide in oversimplified form a list of what I think needs doing to improve schools. Call these, if you will, Howe's 10 Commandments for Improving Learning.

1. Put more time, effort, and money into helping teachers contend with their difficult task. Good teaching is far more difficult than is commonly understood. Teachers have to have knowledge about methods and subject matter; experience in using these; and patience, emotional balance, and good sense in dealing with young people. Moreover, today's teachers face special difficulties because the schools reflect the stresses of society and because we have committed ourselves to educating all children.

Because of shrinking enrollments, the teaching force will have relatively little turnover in the years immediately ahead. Carefully developed on-the-job training programs are of paramount importance if the main source of learning in the schools (the teacher) is to become more effective. Every school system and every school should have a plan for upgrading the effectiveness of teachers, and the basic resource in such plans should be the cadre of very skillful teachers now in the schools. Federal money for this purpose would be well invested, particularly if it elicited matching funds from states and allowed great freedom to schools in planning what they do to help teachers.

2. Invest in the retraining of school principals. The evidence is overwhelming that schools which are succeeding with children who are hard to teach are schools with skillful and committed leaders. If helping teachers to learn the art of teaching is a difficult task, that of altering the thinking and behavior of principals is an even more elusive enterprise. But it can be done, and investing local, state, and national funds in it is a sound proposition. Many principals need help in effective supervision of teachers as well as in developing support from parents for the learning objectives of the schools.

3. Enlist the community (parents and others) in understanding the teaching and learning objectives of the school and in providing support for them. In places where most homes support what the schools are trying to achieve, a serious problem with teaching and learning in the basic subjects is unlikely—particularly if parents and school staff have worked together to establish both sensible objectives and sensible procedures to attain them.

4. Invest in the development of new types of testing. Teachers sorely need new testing instruments, particularly tests that will help them to search out the weaknesses of individual children. Standardized achievement tests, so common in today's schools, aren't very useful for this purpose. All they do is compare the performance of a youngster with the performance of others in his or her grade without revealing what sort of help he or she needs. Diagnostic testing needs much more attention. Its development should be coordinated with the training of teachers in its use.

5. Provide schoolchildren with lots of interesting books to read. One way for students to improve reading skills is to read a lot. We should increase the supply of good children's literature available in classrooms and distribute more free books to children in poor communities.

6. Develop student record systems that will help schools to teach highly mobile students more effectively. Families in the United States are on the move, but schools seem to assume that

By HAROLD HOWE II
Vice-President for Education and Research, The Ford Foundation, New York City.

youngsters in grade one will continue on through grade six in the same school. The chances are they won't.

Many highly mobile families are poor families that face a combination of problems with income, health, and the law as well as with schooling. For such a population, we need much better descriptions of each child's attainment in different subjects and in different skill areas that can follow a youngster from school to school and reduce the time and effort wasted in schools' mistakenly placing him or her in the wrong class or level.

7. Put a new emphasis on writing in the elementary school curriculum. There are many reasons for the neglect of expository, descriptive, and creative writing in elementary schools—including the demands it places on teachers. The teacher retraining activities I mentioned earlier should assist teachers to make writing an active part of a child's education and to use techniques of assessment that help children improve their writing. Among these should be enlisting children in criticizing their own writing and that of others and enlisting and training parent volunteers to help with writing assessments.

[See the special feature on writing in this issue for a discussion of this topic and some advice from teachers on teaching writing at all levels in the educational system.]

8. Improve the connection between research on learning and practices in the classroom. This is a major mission of the National Institute of Education (NIE). I think it is beginning to show some useful and important results, and Congress would be well-advised to reauthorize NIE and build its budget.

From research, by the way, we need better understanding of the mistakes children make in the process of learning and of ways to use the mistakes for promoting better learning. What teachers do with a child's "wrong answer" is probably one of the central questions not getting sufficient attention in either research or practice. I suspect that more knowledge about this matter is fundamental to students' better mastery of mathematics as well as of other fields of learning.

9. Make sure that time in school isn't wasted. There are many "thieves of time" inside the school, just as the TV steals time outside of it. Youngsters attend irregularly. Bureaucratic procedures interfere with teaching and learning. Some teachers are sloppy in their use of this valuable commodity. We have gone wild over vacations and holidays. In 10 years of schooling, Soviet youngsters spend as much time in formal learning as U.S. youngsters do in 12. Schools and parents can get together to improve this situation.

Equally important is the recognition that some children need more time to learn certain skills and knowledge than other children, and we should find ways to adjust the schools' schedule to provide such children with additional time for learning. This will cost more money, but it is worth it.

We must remember that we are still in the early stages of discovering how children learn.

10. Promote greater equity in the provision of public money to schools. It is hard to prove with finality that spending more money on schools produces more learning. There are some good schools with low per-pupil costs and some not-so-good schools with high per-pupil costs. But the weight of evidence suggests that large discrepancies in per-pupil expenditures are significant and that most low-cost schools do less well by their students than most high-cost schools.

It is a fact that U.S. schools vary tremendously in their expenditures per pupil, and it is a reasonable judgment that most youngsters in undersupported schools are getting shortchanged. It is a fact that more children of low-income families attend undersupported schools than children of high- and middle-income families. State by state across the United States these inequities are being challenged by court action or by legislative initiative or both. For encouraging the improvement of learning over the long haul, it is important that this process continue.

Finally, let me express a general viewpoint about the controversy that has emerged in the United States concerning the effectiveness of our schools. It has brought with it, as do most controversies which cast doubt on important institutions, a search for scapegoats—persons who can be held responsible for whatever it is that some people find wanting. Distinguished thinkers ranging from John Dewey to Benjamin Spock are charged with corrupting America through excesses of permissiveness.

In my view, there is little point in these charges. We need to remember that philosophers, psychologists, and doctors are still in the early stages of discovering how children learn and that early explorers in this field have established some very important concepts. Among these are the following:

1. Children learn better when they are strongly motivated to do so than when they are regimented without regard to motivation.

2. Children learn in different ways, and it is important to find how a particular child can be helped to learn, rather than assume there is one method for all.

3. Children may go through roughly similar processes of development, but they do so at different times and at different rates—a factor for which schools must adjust.

4. Children learn in school a great variety of attitudes and values that are as important as the basic skills, and the teaching of the basics must be attuned to enhancing these values, which include honesty and fairness to others.

I hope our schools will build on these and other elements to produce a generation more literate and more thoughtful than mine. □

Mr. Howe spoke at greater length on this subject during hearings on teaching and learning basic academic skills in schools for the Senate Subcommittee on Education, Arts, and Humanities, on February 13, 1979.

SPECIAL FEATURE ON WRITING

The Writing "CRISIS"

I used to think that I had the meaning of the word *crisis* pretty much nailed down. *Crisis* meant that things were at zero hour (Roget agreed), a Three-Mile-Island situation when the bubble will burst or not burst, cool down or go through the floor.

Our society never seems satisfied with just having problems, even continuing ones; we must have crises. We delight in exploiting problems by first oversimplifying them, then reacting wildly to our oversimplifications, and finally reacting to our reactions. Sometimes the process has its benefits, though we acquire a few peptic ulcers on the way.

Take the case of what one educator called "The Great American Writing Crisis." Like most of our crises, this one is related to the forces of history—the complex matrix of the 1970's, when our nation emerged from the Vietnam conflict and the Watergate debacle with deep emotional scars. The altruism of the 1960's, with its belief that education could solve most of our national problems, had turned sour. Individual charisma was suspect. The 1970's was a time for questioning our definitions of ourselves and of our nation—and for fault-finding.

By December 8, 1975, America had survived a number of recent crises: the first resignation of a President, the highest unemployment in 13 years, the surrender of South Vietnam, and numerous trials of high government officials. On that date, *Newsweek* hit another panic button with its cover story, "Why Johnny Can't Write." Using declining scores on such national tests as the

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By BROOKE WORKMAN
Chairman, English Department, West High School, Iowa City, Iowa.

...a China Syndrome?

American College Testing Program, the Scholastic Aptitude Test, and the National Assessment of Educational Progress as evidence, *Newsweek* heralded a writing crisis, which became part of a broader crisis, "the back-to-basics crisis." The magazine laid the blame for the decline in writing skills largely on television, structural linguistics, and naive educators. *Newsweek's* 2 million readers, as well as academics who were well aware of the declining scores, sensed an educational Pearl Harbor.

The November 1976 issue of the *English Journal*, published by the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE), reflected the response of English teachers to the media: "Why Can't Johnny and Jane Write? Back to Basics." In that issue, for example, linguist Suzette Haden Elgin of San Diego State blasted *Newsweek* for its "unbelievable hodgepodge of distortions, misconceptions, misstatements, and fairy tales." But neither Elgin's NCTE counterattack nor the milder response of the University of Iowa's Richard Lloyd-Jones that the National Assessment studies "leave most of the issues shrouded in fog" (in the November-December 1976 issue of *Today's Education*) seemed to cool down the media, the public, or even many educators.

By 1977, newspapers across the land were headlining announcements of doom:

- Nation Becoming Illiterate?
- Rise in Remedial Work Taxing Colleges
- Bad English Simply Fault of Ill-Equipped Teachers

To make things worse, on November 14, 1977, *Time* added its own weaponry to the battle with its gloomy cover story: "High Schools in Trouble: A Tale of Three Cities." Instead of analyzing blackboard jungles, *Time* wrote about three high schools—including mine in Iowa City—that exemplify the "historic backbone of America's public education system." Liberally quoting students ("Most kids don't even know what a term paper is or how to use footnotes") and English teachers ("They are so poor in basic communication"), *Time* seemed to confirm the existence of "The Great American Writing Crisis." And 1977 was a good year for crisis, since Americans were also concerned with inflation, energy shortages, a miserably cold winter, and conflict in the Middle East. Even the honeymoon with Jimmy Carter seemed to be over.

By 1978, the writing crisis had moved from accusations and generalizations, angry reactions and counteranalyses, to a concern for action. Educators began to see the crisis as a problem that, while not entirely new, could be solved if understood. Certainly there were problems of definition. Just what is *writing* anyway?

That question has always intrigued English teachers. In the October 1977 issue of *Clearing House*, Ken Donelson of Arizona State University attempted to identify the problems surrounding the definition of writing, as well as the problems involved with the teaching of writing. Donelson saw writing as more than the cosmetics of spelling and punctuation or the relationship of grammar to written expression. He extended the definition to include the social problems of language, such as sexism and ageism and doublespeak. He called for writing teachers who themselves write, who understand the writing process and are not bound by textbook admonitions, and who are determined that students will study *real* writing, everything from *Rolling Stone* to the *Christian Science Monitor*.

The growing professional concern for action showed itself in other ways as well. While writers like Arn and Charlene Tibbetts, (*What's Happening to American English?* Scribner's Sons, 1978) feared that we had reached rock bottom with writing instruction, many educators were pointing to encouraging signs that our affliction was what Richard Lloyd-Jones had called a "disease chronic, rather than acute." Enrollment in the College Board's Advanced Placement Program, which stressed writing, had increased significantly. Back in 1974, the University of California at Berkeley had developed the Bay Area Writing Project, which has evolved into the National Writing Project with 60 projects throughout the country. Institutions such as the University of Iowa, University of Nebraska, and the City University of New York had made considerable progress in legitimizing the discipline of writing instruction.

At about this time, I myself began work on a book that would illustrate that clear, concrete, and correct writing was not yet extinct. I knew that most experienced teachers already knew this, but I also wanted to organize my own thinking about the teaching of writing. And I wanted to convey a message popular with my colleagues and recently validated by the research of Gene V. Glass and Mary Lee Smith of the Class Size and Instruction Project: if teachers have only 15

students in a writing class, they can turn out pretty good writers.

This impulse to write about writing has led me to additional definitions of that word. It has given me a chance to explore what current researchers, such as Charles R. Cooper of the State University of New York at Buffalo, believe writing does for us all.

First, as I began to think on paper, to explore my own experience with writing and with teaching writing, I reviewed those kinds of knowledge that can be useful, even essential, to many writers—knowledge about grammar, spelling rules, outlines, topic sentences. Mastering these is hard work, and improvement doesn't come overnight. I knew that by comparing my own high school and college themes.

I also knew that I have learned a great deal about the effects of language even since I began teaching: writers today must be cautious and sensitive to *he/she, chair, chairman,* and *chairperson*—and perhaps be amused at *waitperson.* I must stress these things to my students. But is that what writing is really all about? Are deficiencies in these skills and sensitivities aspects of a crisis or simply of an ongoing problem?

Then, too, I recognized that writing can include letters, essays, poems, journals, short stories, newspaper and magazine articles, even job applications. As Charles Cooper suggests, my job is not only to give my students a sense of audience for these types of writings but even more, to help them understand why they might want to write in the first place.

In addition, students know that some kinds of writing have practical value in helping them succeed in college or on the job. But do they know that writing is essential for thought, learning, and discovery? Do they know that writing permits us to review and revise our thinking, which ultimately contributes to remembering? Writing, then, makes us better learners—a very practical goal in our culture.

And finally, by writing, we create knowledge about ourselves and thus record our personal growth. The result can be the kind of human development that Henry David Thoreau once called "being alive."

Perhaps this is the lesson of "The Great American Writing Crisis." Writing can be taught—and writing, *broadly defined,* should be taught. At present, however, the public's confidence has been shaken. The public outcry of the mid-1970's has demoralized many a student and English teacher, but it has a kind of half-life that will hang on for some time to come. Eventually, it may raise test scores and local and state standards of competency. Yet ultimately the problem will never be completely solved in a nation of changing values, continuing problems, and "crises."

So the writing crisis is not a China Syndrome. What makes the aggregate of recent events significant is simply that the problem of writing is now getting more of the attention it deserves. Thus the "crisis" is fulfulling the dream of every English teacher who has been very alone when assigning that first paper in the fall. An old slogan seems to apply: "I'll take any help I can get!" □

BOARD-MANDATED WRITING PROGRAMS

In some districts, school boards have reacted to the so-called writing crisis by requiring teachers in all subject matter areas to assign student compositions and term papers. I teach in such a district.

How does a social studies teacher who has always taught writing view such school board-mandated writing programs?

I am glad that parents recognize the need to improve student writing and that school boards are responding to that need. But officially mandated writing programs are rigid—rigid in dealing with individual students and rigid in dealing with teachers' time.

Writing programs are filled with "All students will. . . ." Some students, however, can't or won't.

In addition, few programs consider the problem of limited teacher time. If school boards insist that teachers of social studies and other disciplines assign lengthy writing projects, they must provide the time to plan and carry out such programs.

Smaller classes, extra planning time, or teacher aides are essential. Otherwise, teachers must sacrifice subject matter or writing projects which complement their courses to carry out school board mandates.

Teaching writing is important; but teaching writing well—creatively to enhance rather than divert from course content—is more important.

—Nancy R. Hall, *teacher of government, Thomas Jefferson High School, Fairfax County, Virginia.*

HOW SOME TEACHERS TEACH

BY GIVING ATTENTION TO INDIVIDUAL NEEDS

My best approach to teaching writing, after years of experimentation, turned out to be nothing more innovative than a way of giving attention to individual needs. The sine qua non of the system was surely the means of keeping matters straight which reposed in my right-hand desk drawer. I will describe that in due course.

Some other practices helped out, however. English composition is such a bumpy road for so many that to relieve the pressure, I substituted "may hand in" for "must hand in" and "any time you like" for "by Friday without fail" and "in 150 words or less" for "in at least 500 words." And as often as I could do so, I created situations where an effort yielded students a personal satisfaction quite apart from the mark in my grade book. I might read the best student papers to the class—with the students' permission, of course. The author might read a paper to a recorder for me to use in another class. The school paper might print it as a feature.

I aimed at involving students in "honest writing"—not mere avoidance of plagiarism, but bona fide communication of whatever was theirs to express with confidence. I'd scowl and say, "Don't expect to hold my interest if you write on subjects about which I already know more than I care to know." They would grin, and I'd say, "Tell me something interesting about your specialty."

Given such leeway, my charges produced competent papers on such unlikely subjects as prestressed concrete and space fuels; sold feature copy to the Sunday magazine section of a state paper; and had fun writing structure exercises with zany titles such as "Three Reasons Why I Wouldn't Want a 'Possum as a Roommate." They had the opportunity—I scrapped the word *assignment*—to earn aggregate points representing 20 percent of their term grade by writing such compositions. (Such cavalier sacrifice of traditional subject matter for themes may make you cringe. Remember, please, that 80 percent of our time and effort went into study, discussion, and tests relating to conventional fare.)

But this easy-does-it approach to teaching writing would, I feel sure, have been a total disaster except for what I kept in that right-hand desk drawer—alphabetized packets of individual progress reports.

During the first week of a grading period, I gave everybody two copies of a mimeographed sheet: "Opportunities for Earning Writing Credit." The students signed one and gave it back to me for the desk drawer and kept the other one as a reference and a personal record sheet. These pages contained many suggested topics and points of departure for writing, along with the number of points awarded for acceptable performance on each, the aggregate score to constitute 20 percent of a term grade. As papers came in at students' convenience, I marked them, recorded the scores, returned the papers, and that was that. At the end of a grading period, I needed only to total earnings and record the figure in my gradebook.

—**Edith Shannon,** *retired teacher of English-Latin, Jonesboro (Arkansas) High School.*

BY USING THE WHY-AND-BECAUSE METHOD

If I were to ask you, "Did you have a good time on your vacation in Maine?" and you answered, "No, it was a complete disappointment," you would have stated an opinion or value judgment. Then, if I asked, "Why?" and you replied, "Well, the cottage didn't live up to the advertising, the people next door drove us crazy, and everything was so expensive we spent more money than we should have," you would have an outline for a 500-word composition or a 3,000-word article.

This why-and-because outline is one I developed to guide the theme writing of my college students when I was teaching at the University of Iowa. It is equally useful for grade schoolers and junior and senior high school students.

It can be used by the fifth grader who shouts, "I just hate that Betsy Brown," or by a high school senior who contends, "President Carter made a grave error when he went to Israel and Egypt on a peace mission."

If teachers challenge students to present examples, facts, statistics, or quotations to back up their opinions, they can stimulate the minds of students, help them organize their ideas, and promote thinking.

WRITING —Some suggestions for teachers at various levels and in various subject matter areas

If students are nonverbal or are not much interested in anything outside their own little worlds, a simple question about something they do know about may get them started. For example, when Bill first came to the remedial writing clinic where I worked at the University of Iowa, I found him uncommunicative and uninterested in any subject I suggested for a theme.

Finally, I asked, "Bill, how do you like your science teacher?" He answered with an explosive outburst, "That Miss Unsuited is a lousy teacher!" So I asked him, "Why?" And his "becauses" became the topic sentences for his theme. Following is the outline for that theme—one that he and I worked on together.

I. Thesis sentence: Miss Unsuited is a lousy teacher. (Why?)

II. Body: (Becauses)

A. She can't keep discipline in our class.

B. She doesn't know enough about the subject to teach us anything.

C. She doesn't understand teenagers.

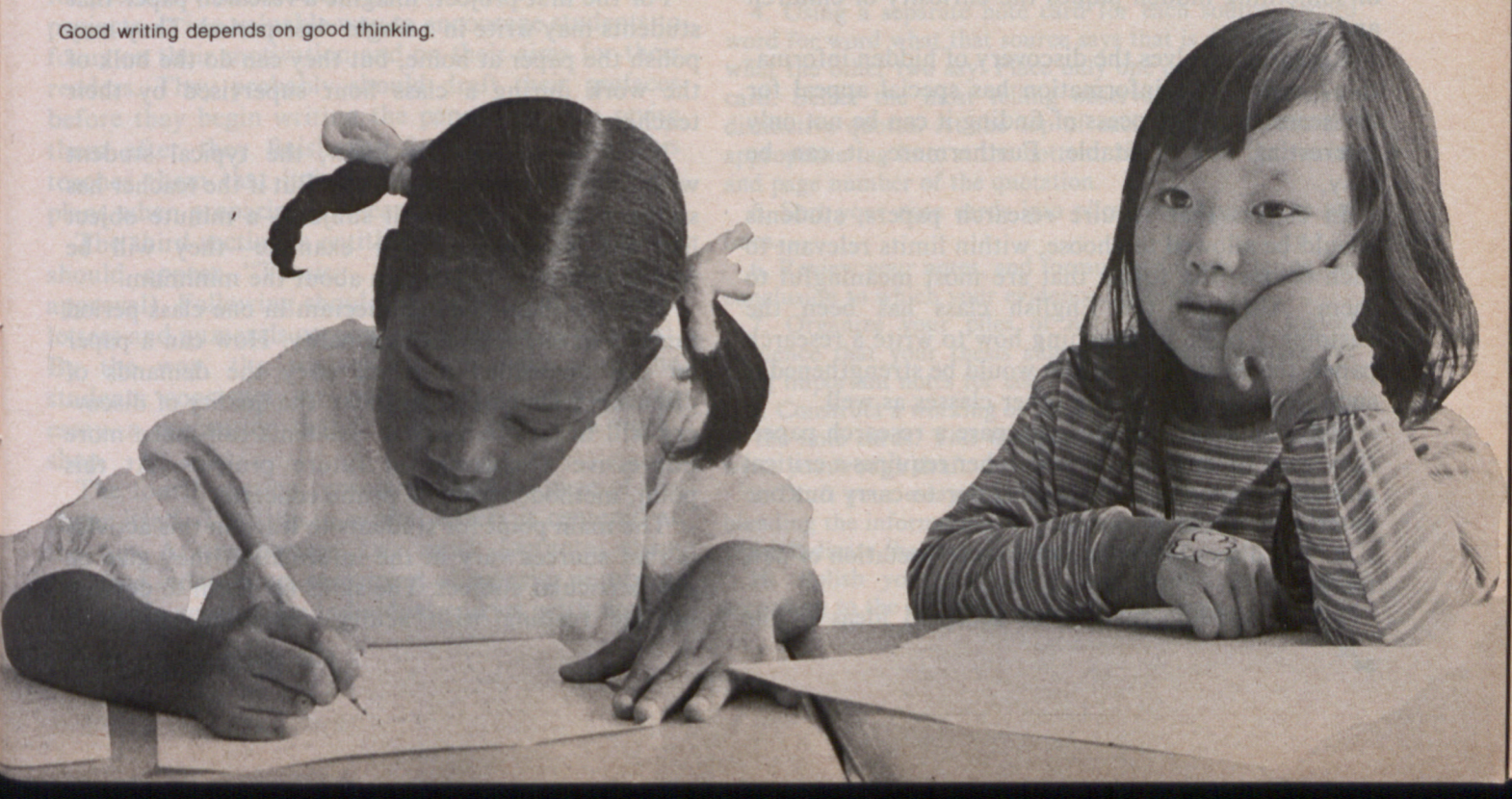
III. Conclusion: Because Miss Unsuited lets the kids get away with anything, doesn't know her subject, and acts like she hates kids, she's a lousy teacher.

I'm afraid Bill was even more convinced of how lousy she was after he finished his theme, but at least, by producing a short composition that earned him a C instead of his usual F, he became more confident that he could handle ideas if he put them into a simple outline.

Bill could have expanded this simple outline into a five-paragraph theme. He could have put the thesis sentence at the end of an introductory paragraph; used A, B, and C as topic sentences for three paragraphs to make up the body of the theme; and made the last paragraph a simple summary of what had been said. He could have used examples, quotations, anecdotes, statistics, and the like to elaborate on his topic sentences. Some students need to include two or three examples or facts under A, B, and C in their outlines for two reasons: to be sure they can produce the examples, facts, or anecdotes to elaborate on each of their main points and to prepare a guideline before they begin writing that will keep them from digressing or overlooking important points.

When Bill saw that he could write a theme, he became interested in grappling with more complex ideas. After a semester of exposure to new experiences, controversial ideas, and new friends, he began to gain insight into more complex problems. He

Good writing depends on good thinking.



found a big world out there, faced with graver problems than any he had faced with Miss Unsuited. The outline he showed me before he wrote his final theme was gratifying to both of us:

I. Thesis statement: President Blank is being unfair to 90 percent of the students who attend this college. (Why?)

II. Body: (Becauses)

A. He is permitting a few troublemakers to intimidate students and teachers in the classrooms.

B. He is not cooperating with local law enforcement officials who want to arrest students who are destroying public property.

C. By disbanding classes a month early because of campus unrest, he is discriminating against the students who have paid their tuition and dorm fees and want their money's worth in education.

III. Conclusion. Ninety percent of the students at this university are being treated unfairly by Mr. Blank.

Stimulating the minds of unimaginative or uninvolved students who have never been forced to dwell on anything more complex than personal experiences is not too difficult. Controlling the runaway ideas and the lack of focused thought in rapid, creative, and imaginative minds is another matter. These students, unlike the slow starters, leap on their horses and ride gaily off in all directions at once. Their lack of organization is often concealed by glibness and cleverness. If teachers can get these students to harness their stampeding ideas, support their off-the-top-of-the-head opinions, and validate their hasty judgments, they can rein in runaway thinking and bring it to a logical conclusion.

Sometimes the problem for student writers is not lack of motivation or lack of organization but lack of objectivity. Some students are too emotionally involved with their subjects. At first they fail to realize that they cannot find real support for their opinions. Statements that they thought would support their ideas may turn out to be hearsay, stereotypes, or unsupported opinions of parents or friends. The dismay they feel when they realize that they haven't validated their theory with facts is enlightening. They don't readily forget that opinions must be supported with facts before they will be accepted as valid.

Of course, this why-and-because method isn't going to solve all the problems of student writing, but it is a good place to start. If you were to ask me, "Why are you so convinced that this type of outline is helpful?" I'd reply, "Well, because it stimulates thinking, it channels ideas, and it promotes objective reasoning." (Incidentally, in case you haven't already noticed, that question and answer provided the outline that guided me in writing this article.)

—**Vivian Buchan,** *free-lance writer; former elementary and secondary teacher and former instructor in expository writing at the University of Iowa.*

BY TEACHING TERM-PAPER SKILLS

Hide and seek, search and find—the excitement of the quest never wanes. At every age, the mystery of something hidden piques the curiosity of children and adults.

Research involves the discovery of hidden information—and if this information has special appeal for the searcher, the process of finding it can be not only interesting but profitable. Furthermore, it can be easy.

In classes that require research papers, students should be allowed to choose, within limits relevant to each course, the topics that are most meaningful to them. Although the English class has been the customary place for teaching how to write a research paper, the entire curriculum would be strengthened if such skills were taught in other classes as well.

Before students begin to prepare a research paper, they need to know that a researcher requires a critical and discriminating attitude in order to carry out one or more of these purposes:

- The discovery and credible interpretation of new facts.
- The sensible revision of accepted ideas in the light of new conclusions.
- The practical application of new conclusions.

For the first project, imagine a research paper that students may write in a single class period. They may polish the paper at home, but they can do the bulk of the work during a class hour supervised by their teacher.

Now, as all teachers know, the typical student writes too little about too much. But if the teacher has students focus on a small subject—a minute object like the paramecium, for example—they will be forced to say the maximum about the minimum.

Writing about the paramecium in one class period raises a question about originality. How can a paper on this one-celled creature obey the demands of discovery? On this assignment, the quality of discovery will in fact be modest. Students can make more impressive discoveries in future projects. At this point, methodology is of prime concern.

The main point for students to learn in this activity is that sources vary in the information they give on any particular subject. The skills for them to develop include reading with acuity, recording variances,

organizing and synthesizing findings, attributing data to appropriate authorities, and formulating an original conclusion.

Encyclopedias are the only resources needed for this exercise. After obtaining permission to duplicate articles on the paramecium, the teacher should provide for each student a set of three such articles from three different encyclopedias. *Encyclopaedia Britannica, Encyclopedia Americana, Collier's Encyclopedia,* and *The World Book* are easily accessible sources that contain interesting differences in their reports on the paramecium. These differences, culled out and recombined for a mini-research paper, can form the basis for an interesting critical analysis.

Before students begin reading the articles, the teacher should distribute a description of the format for the assigned paper, including typical entries for footnotes and bibliographical sources. This description should include six sections that outline the major divisions of the finished paper.

The first section shows the centered placement of items for the title page: "[Creative Title]/A Mini-Research Paper/for/English 5/by/[Name of Student]." In the lower left: "Instructor/[Name of Instructor]" and in the lower right: "[School]/[Date]." Using a standard format for a title page encourages students to be neat and orderly throughout their papers and to take pride in the appearance of their writing.

The second section, headed "Preface," contains a brief description of how students should construct their paper's raison d'être: "Compose one paragraph explaining in a personal way how you became interested in your topic and what your purposes are for your readers." This description will serve as a model for prefaces that students will write for other research projects. It is a valuable way to encourage students to focus on their motivation and on their aims for their readers. They probably should draft their prefaces before they begin writing the paper and then revise them after they finish the first draft. Doing this teaches them that it is permissible to change their plans when preparing a research paper.

The third section is entitled "Outline." At the top should appear "Thesis: . . . " (for the teacher's approval). Following should be a blank outline form: letters and numerals correctly arranged and indented. By the way, the teacher should make sure the students construct the outline before writing the essay, a precaution that is possible only in a workshop.

The fourth section represents the first page of the paper itself. The title in capital letters is centered at the top. At the bottom, two mock footnotes show standard indentation, placement of superior numbers, and single spacing for individual entries, with double spacing between entries.

The fifth section shows the writer's name and the page number in the upper right: "Jones/2." At the bottom, it has mock footnotes 3 and 4 to illustrate the consecutive style of numbering.

The sixth section titled "Bibliography," shows the alphabetical arrangement of the resources used for the paper, illustrated with such sample names as Allen, Baker, Colby, Decker, Evershed. Each mock entry will be reverse indented and single spaced and will occupy two lines, with double spacing above and below it. One look at this model and the student is not likely to commit the customary blunder of either numbering or indenting and punctuating bibliographical entries in footnote style.

This set of guidelines provides students with a sense of security and confidence. They know in advance exactly how their paper will look. By drafting the title page and the bibliography at once, they can move quickly into the writing itself.

At the same time that the teacher distributes the guidelines, he or she should give students a list of instructions for note taking and writing. It might contain aids such as these that follow.

1. On three separate note cards, print bibliographical data on the three encyclopedias. Use the kind of indentation and punctuation shown on the format sheet. Set these cards aside for your bibliography.
2. Carefully read each of the three articles on the paramecium.
3. On a sheet of scratch paper, divide the information in the articles into eight to 10 general categories: (1) genus and species, (2) habitat, (3) shape and size, (4) motion and behavior, (5) chemical composition, (6) internal structure, (7) digestion, (8) division, (9) reproduction. Use these headings as tag lines at the upper left of your note cards.
4. Using a separate note card for each source, record word for word what that source says that is different from what the other two say. Place only one quotation on each card. Select the most telling observations or the most distinctive quotes. At the top of each note card, use the appropriate tag line; at the bottom, briefly note the source and page number of the quotation.
5. Sort your note cards into piles according to the tag lines.
6. Review your notes, and formulate a thesis stating the conclusion to which your evidence leads you.
7. Organize your piles of note cards in the logical sequence that your thesis suggests. In general, save the most important notes for last.
8. Construct a working outline that reflects the sequence of the note cards. This outline may need revision as you write your rough draft.
9. Draft your essay to prove the validity of your thesis, blending the information on your note cards into your own style. Indicate the source of each quotation.
10. Polish your final copy and arrange your paper according to the diagrams on the format sheet.

Students may need help with number 6—formulating a thesis. If, for example, Sam has found that the article in *Britannica* offers the most thoroughgoing treatment of the paramecium, he may illustrate the ways the other articles fall short. Or if *World Book's* article seems to be the most simplistic, he can contrast specific passages that clearly demonstrate this particular point.

As students delve into the articles, they will discover interesting variations in treatment. For example, whereas *World Book* says of the size of a paramecium that it "can hardly be seen without a microscope," *Collier's* describes it as being "between 0.12 and 0.13 millimeters long." *Americana* goes into much more detail: "The size varies among the species from about 0.003 inch (0.007 mm) to 0.012 inch (0.30 mm)." *Britannica* puts the matter pictorially, saying that most paramecia "are about the size of the period at the end of this sentence."

In general, advanced students can do the bulk of the work involved in preparing this paper during one classroom workshop. Here they are surrounded by enthusiastic classmates, all engaged in making defensible judgments based on careful study of easily manageable resources.

As students develop, on a small scale, their skills in research methodology, in logical thinking, and in clear writing, they will progress into larger projects requiring extensive library research. No longer will they feel bewildered by the prospect of a term paper.

—Joseph F. Bowman, *instructor of Advanced Placement English, East High School, Salt Lake City, Utah.*

BY DEVELOPING THINKING ABILITIES

One learns to write by writing. Nothing can match the daily use of words to convey facts, ideas, or emotions. The words must be arranged by logical thinking into sentences that contribute to some conclusion.

In high school, the essay question is probably social studies' most effective tool in evaluating mastery of content and conceptual thinking. To answer an essay question, however, requires a sophisticated development of writing skills. Freshmen do not appear at the high school fully equipped to marshal their thoughts into an orderly group of sentences that flow smoothly and inevitably to a conclusion.

Social studies teachers can help students acquire this skill. Here are some methods I have used to develop my students' writing ability.

- Ask students to read part of a chapter and to explain in complete sentences several large understandings they have gained in the reading. They must, after all the reading is done, generalize from the facts the author gives, sorting important findings from unimportant ones.

Then ask the students to discuss their papers. Finally, collect the papers, read them and add your comments and suggestions, and return them to students.

After students have done several such assignments, ask them to weave their large understandings into one or two paragraphs that summarize, in a logical way, the main points of the entire chapter. They must now use the sentences in a way that marches them toward an end result.

- Let students evaluate each other's work. They learn from a classmate's comments, providing the criticism is constructive. Students can be very honest with one another: "Your spelling is terrible! Use a dictionary." "Confused writing. Can't understand what you mean in your second paragraph." "You really didn't answer the question." "A really good job! You used the facts." (Sometimes the student evaluator writes a full paragraph of reaction! More good writing experience.)
- Before beginning a unit of work—on the People's Republic of China, for example—why not throw out topics for a brief (one-page?) composition: "As I See China," "It's All Chop Suey," "Shifting Images," "The Unknown." It's great fun to discover what students know before they come under the rigors of classroom instruction. Of course, prejudices, biases, misinformation surface—all of which we teachers can try to correct as we deal with the subject in future classes.

At the conclusion of the teaching unit, try the same assignment again. This time your topics might be geared more specifically to the material—"China, Future Superpower?" and "China, Problems and Possibilities." Let students compare their "before" and "after" compositions.

- Use films, slides, and other audiovisual aids not only as the basis for discussion but as the basis for written work. I sometimes have students take notes as they view and/or listen to audiovisuals. I prepare in advance a worksheet which requires students to focus their attention on some particular aspect of the presentation. (Of course, the light in the classroom must be adjusted to permit note taking.)

I usually pose a problem at the bottom of a film report sheet. For example, after a film on the economy of Sub-Saharan Africa, I might ask, "If you had $100,000 to invest, would you invest it in an African

industry? Give reasons, based on facts, for your decision." Students select from all the facts presented in the film those that support their contentions. Incidentally, since every essay will differ, that horrendous, almost nightly, correcting chore for the teacher becomes something more than looking for the same facts, again and again, on every student's paper.

• The news of the day is today's history. *Newsweek, Time*, television news broadcasts, the urban newspapers, the local weekly, all are exciting sources of discovery. How shall we use them to deepen, correlate with, reinforce, illumine the lessons of the classroom? A weekly news test, structured properly, can be a fine learning device. It can also involve writing skills. After the usual multiple-choice questions involving people and places in the news, why not use thermal masters to reproduce current and choice cartoons? Ask students to interpret them. Set the requirements: identify the individuals or groups that are caricatured, explain the news item from which the cartoonist drew inspiration (or venom!), and interpret the cartoonist's point of view. Again, students are marshaling information to support their reactions. Yet, they're writing with a minimum of sweat because the thought process is both creative and fun.

• Literature or selected readings can bring history within reach of personal emotion and reaction. Have students write Japanese haiku or tanka (an expanded haiku using five lines of 5, 7, 5, 7, 7 syllables) or the cinquain (lines of 2, 4, 6, 8, 2 syllables) or another poetic form to react to a reading selection.

There's no reason why you can't use the good old book report, but again structure it (Yes, make your own ditto!) to emphasize the historical content in fresh ways. For example, in a study of the People's Republic of China, John Hersey's *A Single Pebble* could be the basis for such a report. In their reports, ask students to comment on the importance of the Yangtze River to China, on mores governing social relationships, and on what the economic needs of China were during the period of history Hersey wrote about.

Social studies teachers do not have to manufacture ways of incorporating writing into our classes on an almost daily basis. There are myriad places and ways to go. We are limited only by our own imagination and our drive. It's hard work, but whoever went into teaching thinking it was not?

We are not turning out boxes or nails; we're dealing with sentient human beings. Our most precious goal should be to develop individuals capable of thinking on their own. Writing is the solid evidence on paper that students are on their way to that goal.

—**Alba C. Thompson,** *teacher of World Cultures, Asian Studies, and Community, Plymouth-Carver High School, Plymouth, Massachusetts.*

BY STRENGTHENING ESSAY-WRITING SKILLS

My sociology units culminate in essay tests, so the essay answer is the form of student writing I see most often and describe here. I believe, however, that you will find many of the following ideas easily applicable to any planned student writing.

Before the Test

I plan review lessons so that when students begin the test, they have already completed, under supervision, much of the planning needed to write an acceptable essay. Several days before the review, I give students essay-planning sheets. These sheets have a sample essay question or two and a series of suggestions designed to help students organize their thoughts about the questions. As a result of following the instructions on the sheets, students come to the review session having done some preparatory writing, including such things as writing two or three introductory sentences for answers to the sample essay questions; listing the terms, course material, and personal experiences they could use in their essays; listing the terms and course material that they could not seem to fit into their essays; and writing two or three alternative concluding sentences for their essays.

Then, in class, students share their planning efforts, compare approaches, and make suggestions for improvements. While this approach requires that students work hard on the course material, it does not involve my having to spend more time grading papers.

During the Test

I used to have problems getting students to proofread their own work. Somehow they had decided that once they had written an essay they need not revise it. To overcome this, I have devised a variety of brief check sheets for students to use after they have completed their essays. A sheet usually directs students to analyze what they have written before they hand it in; requiring them to do things such as—

1. Circle every correct use of a new term we learned in this unit.

2. Put a box around any term that you used in a different form than we used it in this unit.

3. Bracket each reference to a real-life example rather than a hypothetical one.
4. Underline factual statements.
5. Put a T by the topic sentence of each paragraph.
6. Count the number of sentences in your paper and write the number at the end.
7. Put SP by any words you think you have misspelled.
8. State two strengths of your essay.
9. State two weaknesses of your essay.

A check sheet like this forces students to reread their essays and makes the essays easier for me to read.

After the Test

While grading the tests, I have my typewriter handy and make a work sheet of their errors which I expect students to correct. A typical work sheet might include—

1. Misspelled words to correct.
2. Nonsense sentences to rewrite correctly.
3. Words frequently misused (i.e. there, their, and they're) to define, use correctly, or identify incorrect use of.
4. Introductory or concluding paragraphs to be ranked in order of excellence.

The corrections students make on these work sheets need to be checked. Students can do this. In fact, I can get double duty out of the exercise by having students who have trouble in an area like spelling check the work sheets that deal with that area.

The use of these exercises need not appreciably cut into the time needed to teach course material. In addition, I have found that the net results are student essays that are more coherent and easier to read.

If you start using these exercises, however, you will find that there can be an increased demand on your time to work with students who have clear patterns of writing problems.

For example, I had a student who knew the material and wrote good paragraphs but could not create a smooth transition from one major idea to the next. She and I ended up listing some transition words and phrases that she could use in her essays. She brought the list with her into three or four essay tests until we both felt she no longer needed it.

That was a simple problem requiring a small amount of time to solve, but multiply that time by the number of students in your classes and you may very well find that your work on writing skills takes time from teaching your subject matter. If, however, students cannot write about the concepts we have taught them, teaching them even more concepts that they cannot use does not seem that important.

—**James D. Kraft,** *sociology teacher, Wausau West High School, Wausau, Wisconsin.*

BY EMPHASIZING WRITING IN SCIENCE

As one of the basic science process skills, writing—along with observing and inferring—should be a valued component of science instruction. Developing writing skills is important for science students. It can also be downright painful for them (why else all the moans and groans?). Our challenge as teachers is to make writing important, interesting, and successful for them.

Making Writing Important

Explaining the need for complete and accurate record keeping just won't work with most students.

Instead, we should create conditions in which students *see* the need for record keeping. My students once asked me whether they should record their findings when they were investigating the properties of common white powders. I recommended that they do so, but they ignored my advice. Experimenting is more fun than writing. After several days of investigation, however, they realized that they could not remember much of what they had already discovered about the powders. In future experiments, they recorded their findings in writing. Writing becomes important to students when the topic is important to them.

Writing activities that ask students to record their attitudes and values are as important as those that ask for their understandings. They will appreciate your interest in their opinions and may write more than they usually do. When dealing with a controversial issue, ask students to write persuasively for or against the issue, at their option. This will provide you an opportunity to help them develop their skills in supporting a position. Later, in explanatory writing, you may see an improvement in their use of evidence to support a conclusion.

Making Writing Interesting

Do not try to develop writing skills when students are conducting verification-type experiments. This type of experiment is not the kind that encourages students to write. Instead emphasize writing when students are conducting open-ended experiments, where results are unknown, will be unexpected, or are likely to be different from those found by other students. Science investigations of consumer products (e.g., determining the longest-lasting battery and the best glue) often lead to better writing because students are interested in the results. Writing ads based on findings about products, summarizing the results of a consumer survey, and writing letters soliciting information are good writing activities related to science. Two questions that students might ask in letters come to mind: What happened to red M&M's? and How do astronauts go to the bathroom? (The National Aeronautics and Space Administration gets this question so often they have a printed explanation!)

Science offers a great many opportunities for creative writing. Instead of asking students to "describe the characteristics of these plants and their relationship to the plants' survival," ask them to "invent a plant that could survive in a desert environment [or in a pond, a fast-moving stream, or an area with strong winds]." Or challenge your students to describe something from an animal's or plant's perspective or to describe how something might look from a different location like the ceiling or the moon. Or ask students to prepare a newscast of their findings from an experiment; write a science newsletter or a book for primary youngsters on a suitable topic; or design lesson plans, with your help, for use in tutoring students who need help in science.

Making Writing Successful

Have you ever heard the classic teacher statement, "That's a good question. Why don't you go to the library and make a report on it"? This rarely encourages students to write and almost always discourages their questions. Here's a better approach. Have a collection of library books in your room on a variety of science topics. When a question arises on one of these, show your students how you would go about finding the answer: use the table of contents and the index in an appropriate book to locate the information and explain how you would take notes on what you find and how you would write these findings in your own words. Many students have never been taught how to write; they have only been told to write. By showing how *you* write, you show them how *they* can.

Correct use of the scientific method can also make writing more successful. There is a common misconception that the scientific method as stated usually in five or seven steps (state the problem, formulate a hypothesis, etc.) is the way scientists *conduct* their investigations. In fact, the steps are the sequence in which scientists *report* their work. When scientists investigate problems, they follow all the steps but not necessarily in a given order. Scientific enterprise is much more creative—and disappointing—than is implied by any sequential formula for scientific inquiry. When students understand the purpose of the scientific method, they can use the steps to organize and improve their report writing.

The best way to develop writing skills in science is to provide frequent, high-interest opportunities to use them. Remember, writing is a process skill—as much a part of science as it is of English.

—**Richard J. Rezba,** *assistant professor, Science and Math Education, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond; former high school science teacher.*

One learns to write
by writing
and writing
and writing. . . .

BY REVIEWING GRAMMAR IN MATH

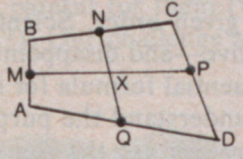
The head of the English Department and I maintain a constant feud on the subject of teaching English composition in class time allotted to other disciplines. I call his Writing Across the Curriculum program Riding Roughshod Across my Particularum. English teachers should teach English and, please, they should permit me to squeeze as much math as I can into my own limited time periods.

As much as I argue with him on this topic, though, I have to admit that I do teach some grammar. Sentence structure is so pertinent to geometry that I find I am actually cooperating with him, even as I hurl my barbs. I have to show students how to find the subjects and predicates of statements. Sometimes this is the only way they can recognize the given and the conclusion of what they want to prove.

First we search out the verb in the statement. For example, "The altitude from the vertex angle of an isosceles triangle is the median to the base." Lots of bright tenth graders can't find the verb. The statements can, of course, get harder: "The measure of an angle formed by two secant rays with a common endpoint outside a circle equals one-half the difference of the measures of the intercepted arcs." But we don't panic. We just cherchez le verb.

Once we locate the verb, we find the subject. The given is the subject, with all its modifiers. That little devil of a verb and its modifiers are the conclusion: what we must prove. Want to try some?

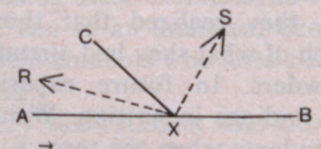
1. The segments joining the midpoints of the opposite sides of a quadrilateral bisect each other.



Given: M, N, P, Q, midpoints of $\overline{AB}$, $\overline{BC}$, $\overline{DC}$, $\overline{DA}$.

Prove: X is the midpoint of $\overline{MP}$ and of $\overline{NQ}$

2. The bisectors of two adjacent supplementary angles form a right angle.



Given: $\vec{XR}$, $\vec{XS}$ ∠ bisectors. ∠ AXC and ∠ CXB adjacent supplementary ∡.

Prove: ∠ RXS is a right angle.

We can't carry English grammar too far in math class, however, because we don't write our problems in English. Avoiding words, we translate as much as we can into mathematical symbols.

"AB + BC =AC" means that the three points A, B, and C are collinear, that is, they lie on a line and B is between A and C. I don't care if students spell collinear with one, two, or 3 1's, however, because they don't even have to write the word.

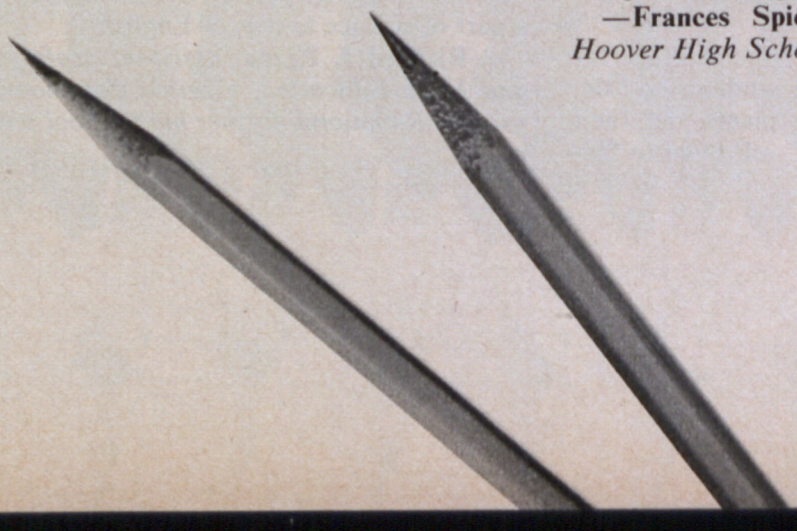
If we can switch to algebra (which is *not* the language they speak in Algeria) and skip words altogether in presenting the proof to a problem, ¡Olé!

Some of my best math expositions this semester have come from Chang Kim, Frank Fernandez, and Tae Hee Min. Tae Hee Min completed a construction last week that was a model of clarity in communication. Each of his compass marks was a jewel-like sentence leading simply and clearly to the common external tangent of two disjoint circles. He can't even say it in English.

I don't think that math teachers can be expected to have students write English compositions in our geometry classes, but we can certainly help them learn to analyze and use the English language. As I tell the venerable English chairman, we don't have time to do both his work and our own.

I often propose a parallel alternative, however. He could let students write out their geometry proofs and translate them back into English for one of his composition assignments.

—**Frances Spielberg,** *teacher of mathematics, Hoover High School, Glendale, California.*



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BY ADOPTING THE HONOR ROLL SYSTEM

Teaching students basic writing skills is often considered a tedious educational chore. But it doesn't have to be. Teaching writing skills can be fun if you use the Honor Roll system, a technique where students "write" their own "textbooks" and practically become their own instructors. The system has brought positive results in my classes throughout the six years I have used it.

The Honor Roll is simply a method of using students' writing errors as learning tools—as examples of how *not* to write. The approach is easy: I select the most outrageous errors students have made on a writing assignment and develop them into a composite essay. Then I distribute the essay to the class to critique and correct. Students learn two valuable lessons from the technique: how to laugh at their mistakes and, more important, how to profit from them.

Actually, the Honor Roll is a collection of the most "creative" writing mistakes that students can make. Even though this is a negative honor roll, I have found that students enjoy seeing their mistakes pointed out when they are turned into a learning tool.

The system rests on two premises:

1. If students run out of common grammar mistakes, they'll invent some new ones.

2. If students aren't sure what words to use, they'll make some up.

The method can be used in any course which requires written assignments, and it can be used at any level, elementary to college. Here's a step-by-step description of how to use the system.

Step 1: assign the class papers to write. You may assign any theme you choose, since the system works equally well with any subject. For purposes of illustration, I will use the topic "What My Career Expectations Are."

I choose an assignment of this type for my students for two reasons. The most obvious is to give them practical experience in writing and researching. The second is that it forces them to think about their futures, something which many students don't do often enough. Once the students submit their reports, my work begins.

Step 2: correct the papers. Normally, correcting papers is drudgery. If, however, you keep my two basic premises in mind and look for the inventive errors students make when writing, you will find the

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reports amusing. You will discover misspelled words, misplaced modifiers, grammatical errors, run-on sentences—in short, the gamut of mistakes students can make. As you correct the papers, you can perform Step 3.

Step 3: assemble the errors. Select the most outrageous (which I choose to label "creative") errors from the individual papers. Also try to include at least one example of each of the most common grammatical errors student writers make.

Be sure to protect students' anonymity. Remember, the Honor Roll is a class project. Students do not like to be ridiculed as individuals for their shortcomings. Present the Honor Roll as an anonymous collection of errors. Then students will laugh at themselves—and profit from their mistakes.

Step 4: draft a composite report. Here is your chance to be creative. Incorporate the entries you have chosen into a composite report. How you do it is up to you. There are many ways of approaching the project. For instance, you can make a list of the poor sentences, misspelled words, and so on, or you can write an essay that includes the errors, inserting your own thoughts to provide transitional material as needed.

The composite report below is one I presented to my classes on the topic suggested in Step 1.

My Career

Today we will hear from a panel of students discussing their future plans. Let's listen in as they talk. *Note:* The parentheses indicate sentences I have added to provide some continuity (however limited) to this report.

("What would you like to be when you grow up?")

I want to be a secratary. They releive their superiors of much detailed office work. The field is interesting some parts are routine, but there isn't one day that some new thing or problem comes up. an executive secretary has more changellaning and versified duties. In one respect their similarities do differ. The electric typewriter is less tiring because the typist uses effort in operating it.

("Wonderful! You've certainly painted a rosy picture for the future of secretaries. Fortunately, I don't need one right now. Who's next?")

I thought of studying a lawyer. That was my first exposure to the professional field of law. ("Is there an unprofessional field of law?") The possibility of being a lawyer was impossible due to personal responsibilities. Although at present I am reconsidering the profession, it is not because of the profession. The future looks good, it is something that will not die out with time.

("Thank you all for speaking. I couldn't have expressed my thoughts as you did. Unfortunately, our time is up. All you future business people remember these final words of wisdom you supplied me with: Good communications boosts the moral of employees. Good night.")

Step 5: show the Honor Roll to the class. You may, if you wish, use one master copy and show it via overhead projector. I have found, however, that this method is less effective than giving each student a copy.

Step 6: lead a class discussion based on the Honor Roll. Be sure to point out that your purpose is not to belittle any students or their writing styles but to demonstrate how *not* to write. Ask the class questions such as the following: What is wrong with this sentence [word, etc.]? and How would you correct the mistakes?

You will find that students become totally involved in exercises of this sort, particularly when you reinforce their lessons with the next step.

Step 7: develop quizzes and tests based on the Honor Roll. You will find enough errors in one group of papers to make up entire tests or quizzes. For instance, you can compile a list of misspelled words taken from the papers and base spelling quizzes on them, or you can give students a paragraph and ask them to find and correct mistakes or to complete sentences.

Step 8: correct and discuss the tests. After you have corrected and returned the tests, discuss them in detail with the class. Since students are seeing their errors for a second time, you will be reinforcing what you talked about in the Honor Roll critique. After this session, students will recognize their errors more easily and perhaps avoid them in future assignments. You have reached part of your goal, which is to help students improve their basic writing skills. But don't relax now. One important step remains.

Step 9: assign another paper. Don't hesitate: assign the next paper while the lessons from the first one are still fresh. After all, the best way for students—or anyone else—to improve their writing skills is to write. The more they write, the more they will learn.

You may discover one major disadvantage to the system: *The more you use the method with a particular class, the fewer errors you have to work with on each succeeding assignment.* But is this really a disadvantage? After all, the drop in errors indicates that students' writing skills have improved. You can be proud of that—and anyway there are more challenges ahead.

You will find, as I have, that just about the time you've succeeded in helping one class, another comes along. You are faced with another challenge—and a new set of writing errors to work with. As long as there are students who want to improve their writing skills and teachers to help them, there will be errors to correct.

—Arthur G. Sharp, *technical writer and part-time instructor of business writing, Mattatuck Community College, Waterbury, Connecticut.*

HOW SOME TEACHERS ARE LEARNING MORE ABOUT TEACHING WRITING

In answer to cries from all over the country about the need to improve writing, several institutions have set up writing projects, using grants from a variety of sources. These projects enroll teachers from various levels of instruction and from various disciplines. They stress the process of writing by having participants write. Following are brief descriptions of a few projects.

Bay Area Writing Project (BAWP) was initiated in 1974 with a summer institute on writing on the Berkeley Campus of the University of California. Its purpose is to improve the teaching of writing from preschool through university.

Each year BAWP has expanded with funding from the National Endowment for the Humanities and the Carnegie Foundation of New York. Today it coordinates more than 60 projects throughout the nation, all combined to create the National Writing Project. Each new project is modeled after, but not identical to, the original sponsored by BAWP. (A description of one BAWP spin-off—the Northern Virginia Writing Project—appears below.)

For more information, contact James R. Gray, director, BAWP, Dept. of Education, University of California, Berkeley 97420 (415-642-0963).

The Northern Virginia Writing Project (NVWP), a spin-off of the Bay Area Writing Project, was instituted in 1978 at George Mason University in Fairfax, Virginia. NVWP in turn helped to establish the **Virginia Writing Project** in 1979 with an additional five sites throughout the state. Each of the six sites is autonomous.

Every summer, each site offers a five-week institute for graduate credit to 25 experienced and talented teachers of writing. Participants are selected from nominees identified statewide by elementary and secondary schools and colleges. Participants receive a stipend of at least $200 plus tuition.

For more information, contact Donald R. Gallehr, director, NVWP, George Mason University, Fairfax, VA 22030 (703-323-2217).

Center for Research in Writing (CRW), Providence, Rhode Island, is an independent, nonprofit, educational service organization dedicated to the improvement of writing.

CRW has designed and tested diagnostic instruments to describe student writing samples according to the presence or absence of 18 conventional traits or properties. The resulting criterion-referenced analysis is called a writing profile. Teachers from kindergarten through university level can use these profiles to diagnose student writing, determine student placement, and assess instructional priorities.

For more information, contact A. D. Van Nostrand, director, Box 2317, Providence, RI 02906 (401-863-2138/2594).

The Institute on Writing is a project to improve the teaching of writing on the college level. This school year, the second and last for the project, 20 directors of freshman writing from colleges and universities all over the country are attending the University of Iowa for six months. After completing the Institute, participants will present pilot freshman writing courses for consideration by their respective schools. They will also run professional development programs for colleagues who teach freshman writing.

For more information, contact Carl H. Klaus, director, Institute on Writing, 308 English-Philosophy Bldg., University of Iowa, Iowa City 52242 (319-353-6559).

Southeast Iowa Writing Project was initiated in 1978 by the Iowa Department of Public Instruction and the University of Iowa. The first summer, 25 K-12 language arts teachers enrolled in a three-week course for graduate credit. This past summer, the Project enrolled 100 teachers at four sites.

For more information, contact Cleo Martin, co-director, University of Iowa Rhetoric Program, Iowa City 52242 (319-353-3930).

University Associates in Rhetoric began last academic year at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. This program serves high school English teachers from all parts of the country.

To qualify, teachers must be recommended by school districts that are willing to grant a full year's leave at half salary (the University pays the other half). They must have had at least five years of experience teaching English and have earned a master's degree in English or in English education.

For further information, contact R. Baird Shuman, managing director of the project, 100 English Bldg., University of Illinois, Urbana 61801 (217-333-2390).

The Vermont Writing Project was launched in 1977 by the University of Vermont for Vermont public school teachers. In 1977 and 1978, the Project ran summer institutes for more than 150 high school and college teachers.

In 1979, the Project began a three-and-a-half-year program that focuses on the teaching of writing in elementary and junior high schools. It ran a three-week, six-credit course on writing for 100 elementary and junior high school teachers and a week-long program for 30 administrators. The teachers received free tuition and stipends of $200 to cover room and board. A second round will be offered during the summer of 1980.

For more information, contact either Paul Eschholz or Alfred Rosa, project directors, Dept. of English, 315 Old Mill, University of Vermont, Burlington 05405 (802-656-3056).

Wisconsin Writing Project was initiated in 1978 by the University of Wisconsin-Madison. This project enrolls 30 outstanding teachers in a four-week summer workshop for graduate credit. Each of 10 Wisconsin school districts selects one elementary, one middle, and one high school teacher to participate in the Project.

For further information, contact John M. Kean, project coordinator, Dept. of Curriculum and Instruction, University of Wisconsin-Madison 53706 (608-263-4610).

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 8 AND 57

A Glimpse at CHINESE EDUCATION

We had 14 days in the People's Republic of China—November 22 to December 5, 1978—to observe the educational system. None of us speaks Chinese, so we got much of what we learned through interpreters. With one exception, we saw only those schools our Chinese hosts arranged for us to see.

We visited education institutions in four cities—Guangzhou (Kwangchow, formerly Canton), Shanghai, Xian (Sian), and Beijing (Peking). We saw a range of institutions from nursery schools to colleges and universities.

In some instances, we felt we were walking a path well-worn by many other "foreign friends," as the Chinese called us. For example, when we visited the Deaf-Mute School in Guangzhou, we learned that the School welcomes about 20 tourist groups a month—that's about one every school day.

During our afternoon at one of the 11 children's palaces—centers for after-school activities for schoolchildren—in Shanghai, nine other groups of foreigners were touring the center. (This will come as no surprise to those who have read a number of books or articles on the subject of education in China today. The Deaf-Mute School and the Shanghai children's palaces are standard fare in many of these accounts.)

Forty-six of us were on this tour, which was sponsored by the National Education Association. For 21 of us, plus the director, however, the 14 days in China were the tail end of a three-month travel-study program to Japan, the Republic of Korea (South Korea), and the People's Republic of China.

Before entering the People's Republic, this study group had read and heard lectures on China and Chinese education. We are still hardly experts on the subject. Yet, we left the country with some vivid impressions of its educational system. Here are a few of the most important ones.

The rapid effects on education of changes in the nation as a whole. We recognized that observers of Chinese education today need to evaluate it in light of the political changes that have recently taken place in the country. The People's Republic has abandoned Mao Zedong's (Mao Tse Tung's) Cultural Revolution, which greatly disrupted all Chinese institutions, including the schools, and repudiated the Gang of Four led by Mao's widow.

During the Cultural Revolution, Mao attempted, among other things, to establish egalitarianism in the schools. Most exams were abolished; standards were lowered or abolished; more emphasis was placed on the dignity of manual labor than on the mastery of academic subjects. Some colleges and universities were closed. The country looked inward and shunned foreign influences, including the teaching of foreign languages in the schools.

In 1978, the country made an about-face in what the Chinese call the Great Leap Outward. They now talk of modernizing the country by the end of the century and are looking toward foreign

countries for help in reaching their goal. Normalization of relations with the United States late last year was just one step in that process.

Everywhere we went on our tour, Chinese educators spoke of the disastrous effects of the Cultural Revolution and the policies of the Gang of Four on the schools. They said students could not learn and teachers could not teach during that period. Now, they say, "Our wise Chairman Hua has smashed the Gang of Four, and great changes have taken place in our schools." These changes include restoration of examinations, stricter discipline, and the return of educators ousted during the Cultural Revolution to their former positions.

The explicit nature of the political content of education. Even had there been no political upheaval in 1978, however, the subject of politics would still command a tremendous amount of attention in Chinese schools. Evidences of *political education*, as the Chinese call it, or *political indoctrination*, as some in our group called it, are everywhere.

- All the schools we saw displayed at least one picture of Chairman Mao and one of Chairman Hua Guofeng (Hua Kuo-feng)—usually side by side in the most prominent place in a room. Sometimes, these two faced pictures of four other Communist greats: Marx, Lenin, Engels, and Stalin. Pictures of current political leaders peering from the walls of schools are, of course, not uncommon in some other countries. Park Chung Hee's picture hung in every school we saw in South Korea, for example.

Often, the few posters on the walls in schools had political messages. One in an English class at Fudan (Futan) University in Shanghai read, "Rally closely around the Chinese Central Committee headed by Chairman Hua."

- In most of the education institutions we visited, the children presented a show for us. More often than not, the titles of the songs, poems, and skits they performed had political overtones. Witness a smattering of the selections we heard at the Yangpo (Yang Poo) Children's Palace in Shanghai: "Follow Chairman Hua Closely," "Chairman Hua's Merits Are Very Great," "Kids from All Nationalities Love Chairman Hua," and "Sing a Song to Chairman Hua."
- The content of a number of lessons we observed was political. For example, in an English class at the South China Teachers College in Guangzhou, students described, in English, four pictures that showed Zhou Enlai (Chou En-lai) and government ministers at a work site, working and living there like everyone else. The teacher asked, "Did they [Premier Zhou and the ministers] have any privileges?" A student answered, "They didn't have any privileges except Premier Zhou. He had a room to himself, and he worked there far into the night after the other people had fallen asleep."

Alba Thompson, a teacher of Asian studies at Plymouth-Carver High School in Plymouth, Massachusetts, and a participant on the tour, describes the goals of Chinese political education this way: "Chinese citizens should be good Communists, work mightily with the group for the group rather than for individual goals, honor Hua Guofeng and the other leaders, and follow the instructions of the Chairman."

The bareness of the schools and the lack of facilities in comparison to U.S. schools. Patricia Gribben, a former special education teacher on the primary level in Needham, Massachusetts, and also a study tour participant, says, "My heart went out to the Chinese. I was touched by what they're trying to do with very few resources in their schools—inadequate lighting, rude textbooks and teaching materials, worn furniture, almost no audiovisual aids."

➤

ONE CHINESE SCHOOL

On December 1, 1978, our NEA-sponsored group visited the Big Wild Goose Primary School in Xian, the capital of Shaanxi (Shensi) Province and one of the principal cities in China. The school, which is a five-year school, is a *key point* school—one that has been singled out for extra assistance from the Chinese government.

The school has approximately 1,600 students; 31 classes; and 65 staff members, 51 of whom are teachers. Most of the teachers have been trained in teachers colleges; a few, however, have only graduated from middle school (roughly the equivalent of a U.S. secondary school).

In first and second grades, five subjects are taught—Chinese language, mathematics, music, physical culture, and painting. In third grade, these five subjects plus English are taught. In fourth and fifth grades, these six plus political education and general knowledge of natural science are taught.

The school has a chalk factory and a small farm on its grounds. Fourth and fifth graders work in the factory for two weeks during each of the two terms in the school year. Children work on the farm also.

Pupils are in school for six-and-a-half or seven hours a day. Five hours of that time is spent in regular classes. The rest is used for physical exercises, eye exercises, and activities of the Young Pioneers (a mass organization for primary age youngsters).

After touring the school and watching a student performance of singing and dancing, our group and the deputy school mistress held a question-and-answer session. Excerpts from that dialogue follow.

How many hours a week does a teacher spend actually teaching?

Each teacher teaches about 24 classes, but each class is only 45 minutes long.

Is there a uniform curriculum guide for each subject taught?

For all the subjects in grade one and for English in grade three, we have a uniform guide for the whole country put out by the Ministry of Education. For the other grades, the curriculum is not yet unified for the whole country. The curriculum is unified within the city, however.

What about textbooks? Are they uniform?

We use the same textbooks in the whole country for Chinese language and mathematics for first grade, for English for third grade, and for political education and general knowledge of natural science for fourth and fifth grade. These are issued by the Ministry of Education. For the other subjects, we use textbooks issued by either the provincial

The few who saw the one school not scheduled on our tour were even more touched by the bareness of the schools. Richard Treman, an economics teacher at Roosevelt High School in Des Moines, Iowa, says he was one of a group of six Americans who stumbled on the school quite by accident as they were visiting a commune outside of Xian. "The school had two rooms—one on either side of a courtyard. It was poorly ventilated, poorly lighted, crowded, and cold. The school was the most primitive one I've ever seen," he says.

Great differences in class sizes among different levels of education. The classes we observed in primary and in middle schools averaged about 50 students. On the college level, however, class sizes were much smaller than this.

For example, an English class we saw at Fudan University had only 28 students. The proportion of students to teachers at this University is 2 to 1. A spokesman for the school says this "abnormal" ratio is due to "interference by the Gang of Four," who replaced skilled teachers and professors with new graduates. Now, the skilled teachers and professors have returned to their jobs, and the new graduates remain.

In addition, the Gang of Four merged Fudan with several other universities, causing a drop in enrollment. The University intends to increase its enrollment gradually until the student-teacher ratio is back to normal, 6 to 1 or 7 to 1, comments the spokesman.

Good student-teacher relationships. We saw no evidence of discipline problems in the schools—although Chinese educators say they have some. Despite our presence in classrooms, students were attentive to their lessons; some never took their eyes off the teacher.

There seemed to be a good rapport between students and teachers. Some of our group noted a great respect on the part of students for teachers.

Teaching methods that are considered formal in the United States. In almost all classes we observed, teachers were using a lecture or a lecture-demonstration method of teaching. Sometimes, students participated in a lesson by giving responses to a teacher's question or by reciting a passage in unison. We saw none of the discussion that is common in U.S. schools.

We also saw very little evidence of individualized instruction. Classes usually worked together on one project or lesson.

The physical agility of the children. Several of our group were amazed at the agility of pupils in the early primary grades. They seemed further advanced in this area than their U.S. counterparts. The Chinese children demonstrated exceptional muscle coordination in such activities as molding clay, paper cutting, and folding boxes. In their dancing and singing, they used intricate gestures, demonstrated good rhythm and poise, and projected their voices.

Patricia Gribben says Chinese nursery and primary teachers introduce excellent activities for stimulating perceptual, language, and sensorimotor development in their pupils. Interestingly, Gribben says, as children get older, the schools' objectives for them obviously change. She notes we saw little evidence of these types of activities for older students, who were usually sitting at their desks, reading or reciting.

All in all, most of us were impressed with the Chinese educators' and students' dedication to and enthusiasm for learning. Whether they will achieve their goal of modernization in this century is a question for the future.

—**Elizabeth E. Yeary,** *assistant editor.*

ONE CHINESE SCHOOL (continued)

education authority or the city education authority.

What percentage of students in the school have difficulty mastering their subjects? What is the school doing to help these students?

About 20 percent have difficulty. The difficulties have three causes. (1) Sabotage by the Gang of Four kept the school in confusion when they were in power. (2) Some children have poor mental development due to some diseases. (3) Not all subjects have unified textbooks yet. Some students have difficulty because the books are not unified. Before 1980, however, the whole country will have unified textbooks.

The school helps children who are having difficulty by—

- Raising the standards of the teachers. They have formed groups to study and observe one another in this school and to study and observe teachers in other schools.
- Dividing classes by the level of the students. The best, average, and poor students are in different classes.
- Holding competitions to see who is the best in mathematics and Chinese composition to encourage students to do their best.
- Forming groups among the students to help one another. The better ones help the poorer ones.
- Contacting parents of students. The parents can check to make sure students do their homework.

What does the school do with students who break the rules?

There is no physical punishment for those who break the rules. The stress is on education for the wrongdoer. The school has a dean of studies and a coach of the Young Pioneers who try to educate students who break the rules. If a student still breaks the rules, the school may threaten to expel him or her.

If the student is a Young Pioneer, he or she may have to stop attendance in the group. Occasionally, we call parents in. Sometimes teachers will make home visits on Sundays to discuss problems with parents.

Do students clean their own classrooms?

Yes, it is a common practice in China. Every week, classes do general cleaning of their rooms. We divide the outside grounds into areas, and different classes are responsible for cleaning different areas.

Are the educational goals for boys and girls the same?

They are the same in grade one, but there are differences after that in the goals for physical culture and for health education.

—EEY.

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The president will say that the administration runs it; the trustees, that they do. If the university is part of a state system, the legislature will believe that control of the purse gives it final authority. So, too, with the faculty. To prove it is they who really run things, they will point out how they control the really important areas of university life—curriculum, academic standards, and the development of nonacademic programs.

According to faculty perceptions, the administration is there principally to see that the garbage is collected and the place is swept up. The trustees are a rubber stamp necessitated by statute but best kept in the dark about the educational process. The legislature is a necessary evil to be placated each year or biennium when budgets come up for review. These perceptions all derive from the Myth of Faculty Control.

How does the faculty exercise this alleged control? According to the Myth, faculty members run the university through a process called *collegiality*. In times past—in some places perhaps—deans and academic administrators were faculty colleagues who, in the mature years of their careers, took on the burdens of academic administration, either retiring from the new role or returning from it to their first love, teaching. Administration was but an interruption in, or a termination of, a distinguished academic career. According to this model of governance, administrators are simply faculty members who showed they could answer their mail.

Since administrators and faculty were literally colleagues prior to the former's taking on administrative roles, it is thought that collegiality is the ingredient that prevents adversary relationships from developing between administrators and faculty. And it also gives faculty members complete access to the decision-making process so that the faculty will hold sway in all important matters.

Developments in education since World War II have given the Myth of Faculty Control considerable credibility. Ever since the founding of the nation, higher education has been growing, but nothing in the history of higher education has equaled the 25-year-long growth binge that began after World War II and continued on into the 1970's. The period began with an influx of GI's with veterans benefits onto the nation's campuses and ended with the influx of the baby boom generation. Throughout, enrollment growth was abetted by the decision of ever higher proportions of young people to attend college, and also by an apparently endless stream of money from the public treasury. Moreover, during the late 1960's and early 1970's, the threat of being drafted to fight an unpopular war temporarily swelled the enrollment rate of young men. Among most Americans, the view prevailed that a college degree was a ticket to the American Dream.

But all this has changed. The baby boom is history. The stark fact is that the college-age population will shrink by one-fourth between now and the mid-1990's. In addition, Proposition-13 mania seems to be sweeping the country. With the majority of the professoriate in publicly supported institutions, the impact of the tax limitation movement may already be affecting the employment status of a large number of academics.

Tight budgets are virtually epidemic. Reductions in force for economic reasons are commonplace, and *financial exigency* has become a part of every faculty member's working vocabulary. The concept of tenure is increasingly coming under attack, and horror stories on every campus show the erosion of the faculty's prerogatives.

Because of these developments, the most significant fact of current academic life is the change in the academic marketplace. From the mid-1940's until the early 1970's, the demand for higher education faculty was large and the supply of Ph.D.'s was small. This put academics in a seller's market. Salaries rose from their prewar lows to reach a position of competitiveness with business and industry. Because they were in short supply, faculty members were coddled, deferred to, pampered to a degree.

But no longer. Current faculty members know that there are many others with qualifications as impressive as their own who are willing to take their places—and at lower salaries. Thus, any leverage faculty members might have had—or thought they had—on university governance has disappeared. In spite of all this, many faculty members persist in believing in the Myth of Faculty Control.

I haven't had much practice in destroying myths, but this one has got to go. Persisting in these notions of collegiality will prevent faculty members from getting organized in a responsible way to protect the integrity of academic life from the threats engendered by the new marketplace.

As an exercise in myth killing, I offer the following list of questions to readers in higher education. If most of their responses are yeses, they will prove to themselves that there is not much basis for persisting in the Myth of Faculty Control on their campuses.

- Have faculty salaries over the past 10 years failed to keep up with inflation?

By DAVID STEWART
Professor of Philosophy, Ohio University, Athens.

Who Runs the UNIVER

• Has the administration imposed quotas—either explicit or implicit—on the number of tenured positions, forcing departments to terminate valuable colleagues?

• Have deans or other academic administrators denied promotion to persons whom faculty committees have found deserving? Have promotions been denied on the basis of a hidden quota system rather than on merit?

• Have some faculty members been terminated because of "financial exigency"?

• Are faculty members excluded from the selection of department chairmen and chairwomen and other "supervisory" personnel?

• Are the actions and decisions of the administration arbitrary and capricious and resistant to faculty protest?

• Is the faculty senate (assuming there is one) ineffective in reordering university priorities and goals? Has it continually failed to bring about major shifts in the university budget?

• Has the growth of the administrative bureaucracy exceeded the growth of the faculty?

• Has there been a steady erosion of the academic budget away from instruction and research and into administrative services?

• Is the grievance procedure slow and ineffective? Does it take months to process a grievance? Are many faculty members intimidated into not grieving an inequity for fear of being labeled troublemakers?

• Does the grievance procedure deny the right of a faculty member to have the grievance decided by a neutral third party in binding arbitration? Is the president, provost, or the functional equivalent on the campus the final authority in determining whether there has been a grievance?

• Is substantive (if not procedural) due process frequently absent in decisions concerning promotion, tenure, and termination of employment?

The list could go on, but let me end it here and make an observation. In the past, faculty members responded to undesirable conditions in a university by the simple expedient of moving elsewhere, and an annual turnover rate of 10 percent was about standard for most campuses. This game of musical chairs was accepted as a fact of academic life until the early '70's, when the music stopped and failed to start up again. Most faculty members were caught on the academic chair they happened to be occupying at the time.

Now, changes in the job market, the shrinkage of academic budgets, and the economic uncertainties of relocation have forced increasing numbers of faculty to stand and fight rather than attempt to switch jobs. They have realized that they must get concerned about the future of their institutions of higher education. And when they take a good look at the shape college and university administration is in today, they realize why the traditional collegial approach simply won't do.

First, faculty members must recognize the undeniable fact that administrators are, by and large, not colleagues. If I define my colleagues as those who share a profession with me or who have served with me for some time on the same campus, then I have to conclude that most colleges and universities are run by strangers to their faculties.

One of my colleagues (in the true sense of the word) recently remarked that he felt what was wrong with his university was that none of the "senior administrators" (their term) had been "on board" more than three years. Yet this group of newcomers is making decisions affecting the professional life of all the faculty and reshaping the scope of the university in a significant way.

These administrators are a new breed of specialists who claim expertise in skills so broad that they can be applied to any university anywhere regardless of its background or special needs. I know of a provost whose sole claim to academic experience is a single semester of teaching; the rest of his professional career has been spent managing various educational institutions. He is not an academic colleague of the faculty of his university; he is their manager.

This leads to my second point. The best way to respond to the new management techniques rampant in university governance is for the faculty to get organized. Many faculty members feel, however, that unionization threatens collegiality. Indeed, the very word *union* sends chills down the spines of many academics, for it summons up the spectre of an outside third party interfering in academic life.

What faculty members must understand is that the real outsiders are the new breed of administrator-managers. Through unity—which is really what the word *union* implies—faculty members can have a real effect on what happens in their institutions. (Perhaps the possibility of faculty power is the cause of some faculty members' opposition to collective bargaining: They may fear the collective judgment of their colleagues. If so, then I think they deserve what they get from professional managers.)

For my part, I want my colleagues to have a decisive role in the governing of the university. That is one reason I see collective bargaining as the last chance for faculty members to exercise some degree of control over their professional destiny. As I see it, collective bargaining is the only mechanism available through which they can have an effect on what happens to them. When colleagues achieve this, then and only then will true collegiality return to the governance of universities. □

SITY?

sions. In the year I made this study, the dropout rate for members of the Committee was about the same as the rate for the school as a whole, which is under 5 percent.

I'm glad I didn't do the study this year, because the dropout rate in my Committee group went up this year. This was an awfully rough year.

You never feel that there's any reason why it would be better for a student to drop out?

The only way I can see that it would be better for someone to drop out would be if he or she were *not* running away from a problem. I have never found a situation in which running away from a problem didn't mean having to face that problem again sometime later. And because the person had run away from it, it was bigger and meaner and rougher to face.

Sure, I can imagine a situation in which dropping out might be a valid alternative. . . .

But you haven't seen it yet?

I haven't seen it yet.

You seem to see school as a place that can be therapeutic. How do you react to an alternative view, that schools should concentrate on academics because that's their main purpose and that if schools try to do other things—like foster mental health, for example—they will end up doing many jobs but none of them very well?

If I see a fire in a wastebasket, am I going to walk past it and telephone the fire department because I'm not a fireman?

I do not teach chemistry, I teach students. I grant there are some schools where teachers can teach strictly subject matter. I've taught in college in summers to help pay for all the going to school that I've done. In college, this sort of group work I do with students doesn't seem to be as necessary as it does in high school. But then, if I had been anything more than just summer replacement help, I suspect I would probably have seen that it was necessary in college, too.

As a science teacher, I know mental health is the number-one health problem in the United States. And as far as I can see, there's not a whole lot that anybody's doing about the mental health problems of people. With the Discipline Committee, I can do something positive about these problems. I happened to have stumbled on to something that is working awfully well with students in trouble.

So you'll stay with it. To change the subject, you mentioned going to school yourself.

I've been going to school nearly continuously since I graduated from high school in 1955. Whenever I wasn't teaching, I was going to school. I went steadily every summer through about 1971.

Were you working on advanced degrees?

Yes, I finished my master's in 1966 and all the course work on my doctorate in 1971. And like so many other people with doctoral study, I'm ABD—All But Dissertation.

If I see a fire in a wastebasket, am I going to walk past it because I'm not a fireman?

What will your doctorate be in?

Supervision, curriculum, and instruction. Those data on the Discipline Committee are the subject of my dissertation.

There were many new science curriculums in the sixties—PSSC, the Physical Science Study Committee, and BSCS, the Biological Sciences Curriculum Study. How much of what was in them has stuck?

Quite a lot. But there are basic hazards in trying to institute any new curriculum. One lies in dealing with all the people who are concerned with curriculum development. They include everyone from the custodial helper to the president of the school board to the little old lady who serves on the election board. Therefore, if a school is going to try to institute a new program, it's going to have to realize that that new program impinges on every level of this enlarged notion of curriculum development.

That's one of the reasons I think the Skyline program, the health sciences magnet high school here in Dallas, has worked so well. The program started out with a new building, with a new staff. The only areas where it has had problems were areas where the staff weren't really in philosophical accord with the new curriculum.

It's a classic educational problem. You cannot just have new methods of teaching something. You've got to have theory backing the methods up and you've got to have philosophy backing the theory up. What the new curriculums of the sixties did was to put some fantastic methods in people's hands without giving those people enough information about the theory and the philosophy behind those methods. Those programs are still alive, however, because the innovators did, to some extent, speak to this problem by having training sessions for teachers.

What they also should have done was to have included administrators, and even—after they got the curriculum into the school—representatives of the PTA and the community in the sessions. Not until all these elements work together can a new curriculum be successfully instituted. Without bringing these elements in, schools can spend thousands of dollars and have the prettiest visual aids, but their efforts will end up out the window.

Can you give me an example of how you couldn't do something required by a new curriculum because of not having this across-the-board consultation?

Sure. In the Green Version of the BSCS curriculum [*Biological Science: An Ecological Approach,* Rand McNally, 1973], a number of modules are based on evolution. When you start talking about evolution, some people start running around in circles, and that has happened in some places where the BSCS curriculum was introduced.

One of the rules of curriculum writing they taught us in graduate school is that people will support what they have helped to build. And if you don't show them that they're helping to build it,

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they're not going to support it.

You're really talking about politics, aren't you?

How can you talk about people without talking about politics?

Have you written curriculum yourself for the Dallas school district?

Yes, the first curriculum was an advanced science curriculum done in 1971-72 for the new Skyline High School. I wrote essentially 45 percent of that curriculum. People on my committee wrote most of the rest of it.

We did two more editions of this curriculum, which is geared to high-ability students. And then I wrote several curriculums for low-ability students.

What do you see science doing for low-ability students?

I think it can help these kids appreciate the technological civilization they live in. A few years ago, a colleague and I taught a special course called Man-Made World to do just that. It was a nonmathematical science course.

It was a whale of a course, but the school system killed us by overloading the class with kids with low reading levels, emotional problems, and this, that, and the other. It would have been a fantastic course for these kids had the school kept the number in the class to, say, 15 to 20. But what size classes did I work with? I worked with 30 to 32.

The school wouldn't let us keep the course in the curriculum unless all of the kids who wanted to take it could take it. And that would have meant a whole lot more kids than the two of us were willing to take. So we don't offer the course any more. Isn't that absolutely ridiculous?

I'm in a situation here where I've been pretty used to calling the plays, and to get stuck with something like that. . . .

One of the reasons I've stayed here is because I can have the kind of control over my teaching situation that I couldn't have starting from scratch someplace else.

Are you going to stay in the classroom?

You bet. I have turned down all sorts of opportunities.

You don't even want to be chairman of a Science Department?

No, it's paperwork. I don't like paperwork. And as far as honor goes, I don't think anybody carries any more honor on their back than I do. I've been nominated state chemistry teacher of the year one year and state biology teacher of the year one year. I never got elected to either one of them, but I was honored to be nominated.

Sometimes, of course, I have self doubts. Then I sit down and take some of the advice I pass out so generously, and the doubt all goes away. One of my tactics is to recall successes I have had, and one of these has been to have had three student finalists in the Westinghouse Science Talent Search.

That doesn't happen by accident, does it?

No, a number of factors have to coexist.

One of the things you need is parental backing. Parents have got to know that you have a quality program, so they'll say to their kids, "Mr. Head's a hard teacher and don't you take him unless you're willing to do the work necessary." I have this kind of backing, so my failure rate is negligible, even though I grade as strictly as possible. It's not unusual for half of the students in my classes to earn A's.

And why do you think this happens?

Part of it is due, as I said, to the fact that students don't come into my class unless they want to learn. Chemistry is elective. Also, my chemistry students have a great deal of aptitude for science. In one of my most outstanding classes, three-quarters of the students were in the 99th percentile in science on the Preliminary Scholastic Aptitude Test.

Can students pick you to be their teacher?

Yes. Years ago, we set up a situation in this school which allows students to choose their teachers. I think that this is healthy because kids who want to do well academically can pick teachers that are academically strict.

What proportion of, say, this year's senior class has taken any chemistry course? And what proportion do you think took it with you?

I don't know.

You can see what I'm driving at. For the most part, it seems to me, you have a self-selected group of highly motivated students in your chemistry classes.

Let's get back to the science contest winners. What else besides parental support goes into the formula for producing these winners?

Another element is that I believe that the students can win. When I get a kid I think might put together a suitable project, I refer him or her to somebody in the community who will act as a project adviser. Then I try to keep in touch with both of them and encourage their work.

Another factor that I think has a great deal to do with the success some of my students have had is cooperation on the part of faculty in the junior high school. The junior high people know what we expect of science students in the high school, and they prepare them for us.

Also, I must say that I'm very competitive. I like to see *my* students—rather than somebody else's students—take the top places in the science contests.

How did you get into teaching?

I swore up and down that I'd never teach school. I come from a family with lots of teachers in it from Cleburne, a small town in Texas. I saw how miserably schoolteachers were treated and how miserably they were paid and how hard they had to work, and I said to myself I'd do just about anything rather than do that.

I went to college at Texas Wesleyan, and after three years there, I got accepted into medical school at a branch of the University of Texas and spent a year there.

Anyway I dropped out of medical school because of lack of money, and I went back to Texas Wesleyan to finish up my bachelor's degree. Since I had already taken most of their science courses, I said, why not pick up some education courses, just in case.

So I got out of school in 1959. What I wanted to do was research chemistry, but the best job I could get in chemistry was in pharmaceutical sales.

So I ended up here at Hillcrest High School in the fall of 1959, and I have been here ever since.

And you haven't regretted it?

No, I've been madly in love with my students for years and years and years and feel quite similarly about the community. I wouldn't do anything else. If I had a million dollars, I would still be teaching school. □

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A PARENT SCORES

First in a new series of articles on testing

Mass standardized tests are flunking, yet many of those who run the schools, feeling pressure to prove their professional expertise to a doubting public, still subscribe unquestioningly to testing programs which are of little benefit to students. The results of these programs are difficult to explain to parents in any way that clearly indicates a child's current progress or future needs.

Parents can reasonably ask for an assessment of a child's learning or an explanation of how the school intends to continue a child's educational development. A taxpaying community can reasonably expect an assessment of how effectively its school system performs the tasks for which it was established. Parents, community, and teachers can reasonably expect a public school system to prepare its graduates to be responsible, productive citizens.

The belief, however, that increased mass standardized testing can fulfill all these reasonable expectations is an illusion.

Standardized testing, in fact, results in an assessment system totally unrelated to the local requirements that a responsive school system has defined. More stress on testing will not assure parents of a meaningful evaluation of their children's knowledge, or the community of a sound measure of the accomplishments of its schools. Testing in itself will not assure graduates an adequate education and may push discouraged students out of school. Because of the increased urge to test, however, school systems are spending millions of dollars to benefit only commercial test publishers—and citizens' frustration with the effectiveness of public schooling will not have abated.

By ANN P. KAHN
Member, Fairfax County (Virginia) School Board; Chairman, Legislative Services Committee, and Consultant, Education Commission, National PTA.

It would make better sense first to address some very fundamental questions like What is the purpose of testing? In most cases, it is to inform the school about what kind of help an individual student or a class needs, and neither the public nor responsible educators should impose on students and teachers any testing system that does not accomplish this purpose.

The goal of testing is not, on the other hand, to establish that one school system is better than another. The differences among schools which current standardized testing shows us may be of interest to some, but they are not the central reason for testing. Whatever comparisons are needed can be made by testing sample groups from many schools, without involving all children.

Why are tests shrouded in such secrecy? If parents could really look at actual test questions, they would begin to challenge both their worth and the judgment of school systems that rely heavily on them. Many parents might question tests designed to trick students rather than to probe the degree of their knowledge.

For one thing, the test makers themselves sometimes pick the wrong answer. Some bright students recently found that a multiple-choice question about sound waves had no single "right" answer and that indeed, under certain circumstances, all four answers were "right"! How would a parent react to such a discovery?

Would parents in an urban area feel less distressed about their children's low test scores if they knew that the reason their children all missed a question identifying a lark was that the only lark in their community was a brand of cigarette advertised on local billboards? Far from indicating that these children could not read, their answers proved that they could read and did.

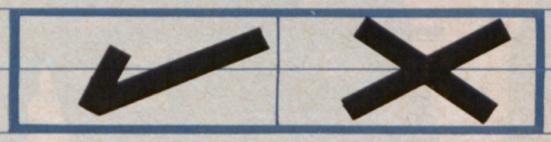
At least as fundamental as badly designed questions is the bias in favor of machine-scored multiple-choice questions. This affects not only what the tests measure, but what the schools teach.

For years, writing skills have been tested through multiple-choice questions. Yet common sense would suggest that proficiency in writing can be judged only through a piece of writing or better yet a progressive series of written works. Parents continue to accept emphasis on drill in the technical aspects of writing because that is what is tested. Yet writing samples indicate a great need for practice in ability to organize and express thought.

The problem is not unique to writing. In a document issued two years ago, the National Council of Supervisors of Mathematics expressed concern that as a result of the back-to-basics movement, many schools are overemphasizing computational skills at the expense of other important mathematical skills. They noted that the skills of yesterday are not the ones that today's students will need as adults: using mathematics to predict, computer literacy, alertness to reasonableness of results, and the ability to measure in both metric and customary systems.

Many standardized tests of mathematical ability, however, simply prevent the changes in teaching necessary to produce training in mathematics for the next, rather than the last, 50 years. Both parents and teachers should make thoughtful judgments about whether schools should emphasize only the isolated areas that are to be tested or train students in the skills they will need as adults.

State legislatures and the federal

THE TESTS 

government, abetted by the thriving and powerful testing industry, press local school systems to undertake costly and redundant testing. They offer little assistance in dealing with the problems such testing raises. On the practical level, once a youngster has not "passed" a test, what then? Will the state provide the funds or technical resources to deal with the youngster's problem?

Even more fundamental, has every local system in the state agreed on a standardized curriculum, or will children be paying the price when we test for information which some systems have not yet chosen to teach? If a local school board is doing a proper job, it is defining an education and testing against that definition. The ability to develop tests is the ability to develop curriculum, and both these capacities are most responsibly handled by the same body at the local level.

Increased testing as a solution to dissatisfaction with local school results is simply a manifestation of our propensity to kick a hard problem upstairs. Parents and the community at large are still in the dark about what children are learning and what schools are doing to improve teaching.

What they require of the schools is a switch in public emphasis from testing to teaching. They are concerned with whether teachers have a clear indication of what the community and the parents expect, and then have the training and resources to fulfill that expectation.

Parents do not believe that the deductions drawn from percentiles are really messages from on high, crystal clear to everyone but them. They are not impressed by pedagogical references. All they really want to know is, How is my child doing? What are you doing to help my child? What can I do to help you? If neither the test nor the teachers can answer that in plain English, parents are likely to decide that schools cannot deal with the fundamental issues in education and that only politicians are able to speak their language.

Keeping parents at arm's length from the assessment of children's education has been foolish and even dangerous. A parent-teacher conference based on a test that is a sham initially and on a technical explanation that defies human understanding is an invitation to a revolt against public education. Small wonder that parents either shy away from such fruitless confrontations or beg for a translation of educational evaluations that leave them bewildered.

What lies in the future for testing? As time passes, mandated standardized testing will be altered by the weight of the problems with which it does not deal. Further reliance on standardized norm-referenced testing will continue to drown us with an abundance of wrong answers to the wrong questions in a format that will glaze the eyes of future generations of parents and teachers. Legislators, having mandated intelligence and achievement testing, will go on to new pressing concerns.

Here and there, however, in school board and PTA meetings, reasonable adults will begin to attack the basic questions that reliance on standardized testing raises but does not answer. Teachers will demand tests that relate to teaching and learning and they will be trained in how to use the data from such tests.

School boards will begin to find public support for testing that measures what an individual child can do rather than how he or she compares to others. Such support will arise because parents are concerned about how the educational system benefits their children, and organizations like the PTA are concerned about the benefits to all children.

The questions that these groups will attack are—

- How will we decide on what we want the schools to teach?
- How will we develop the capability of local systems to do that teaching?
- How will we measure whether children are learning what we choose to teach?
- How can testing and test results be kept in step with the learning process so that proper sequence is maintained?
- How can school people share information about the entire teaching and testing process with parents and the community so that children, not school systems or industry, will be the ultimate beneficiaries?

Some school systems have begun to develop local testing systems to answer the question, Are children learning what we have chosen to teach in this school system? In Fairfax County, Virginia, locally developed criterion-referenced tests measure attainment of locally agreed-on objectives; they use the results to diagnose individual progress and classroom management. Wonder of wonders, the objectives, tests, and results are clear enough that a concerned parent can look at them without a UN interpreter. Parents and teachers can see clearly when a student needs to have a lesson repeated in another way or perhaps to have it reinforced at home. The results of such a system help children learn and teachers teach—and they help parents understand. After years of assurances about the virtues of standardized testing, such new approaches may redeem that much-maligned field, educational assessment. □

Four-Year-Olds in School?

By LEON A. ROSENBERG
Associate Professor, The Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, and Director, Evaluation Project for Early Childhood Education Programs, Maryland State Department of Education.

For several years we have been exposed to continuing debate about the value of schooling at age four. On the one hand, many people have attacked Head Start and similar programs. They quote, for example, a highly publicized evaluation study done for the Office of Economic Opportunity in 1969,* although the adequacy of that study is a subject of controversy. They repeatedly suggest that "we know" that the positive effects of such programs "wash out" within 9 months or a year.

At least one study, however, has begun to provide evidence that the benefits of education for four-year-olds endure as they progress through primary school. The Maryland State Department of Education commissioned that study, which I am conducting. The subjects are 2,000 children in 33 early childhood education centers operated by 10 of Maryland's school systems.

By early 1978 the study, begun in 1973, had provided firm evidence of the value of educational programs for four-year-olds. Despite differences among programs caused by differences in local needs, we found it possible to use a standard, uniform technique in evaluating them. Our findings concerned the cognitive and emotional changes that occurred during the programs as well as the level of academic skill the children later

* Westinghouse Learning Corporation and Ohio University. *The Impact of Head Start: An Evaluation of the Effects of Head Start on Children's Cognitive and Affective Development.*

acquired in kindergarten and first grade.

Both our study and control groups took the same tests at the start and again at the end of the prekindergarten program. Before the programs began, we had matched the groups not only by age, race, sex, and socioeconomic status, but by their scores on tests of intellectual ability, vocabulary, and self-esteem. The way they reacted to the stress of testing also was found to be the same.

At that point, in other words, the two groups were similar in basic background and were also at the same level of intellectual development.

After they completed the programs at age four, the children were tested on the same measures as before.

The study group clearly showed social and emotional growth, whereas the control group did not. The former had developed more self-respect, for example, and were much better able to deal with the stress of adults' demands that they cooperate, both with one other person and in groups.

These changes could not be explained by anything as simple as children's becoming more comfortable in taking tests. First of all, the control group also had the experience of taking tests twice, and this did not cause their scores to improve. In addition, a complex series of measurements indicated that the degrees of comfort that a child showed when taking our series of tests had no relation to the child's scores on those tests.

In other words, the children were not simply learning how to take tests. The indications of cognitive change were quite meaningful.

Shortly after this testing, and before they entered kindergarten, we measured the academic skills of the children in both groups. The program graduates were better informed than the children in the control groups. They understood the meanings of more words; they could more effectively deal with the concepts of *how much* and *how many*; they could do a better job of recognizing letters and numbers; they could use a wider range of words in expressing themselves; and they could do better at listening to a story and understanding it.

The children who had been in the programs continued to show outstanding growth at the end of first grade. By that time they were, on the average, functioning at the following levels:

- The fifth month of first grade in mathematics
- The beginning of second grade in reading recognition
- The fourth month of second grade in reading comprehension
- The first month of second grade in spelling.

The control group, on the other hand, was still functioning at a late kindergarten level on all of those measures. They had, on the average, not even reached the beginning of first grade.

The differences between the test scores of graduates of educational programs for four-year-olds and those of other children clearly showed that the former group had reached a higher level of educational functioning.

Who were the children we studied? The children in the educational programs were primarily children of the poor, rural or urban; some had older siblings who had had learning difficulties; most came from families that were receiving public assistance. Seventy percent were Black, 50 percent were female.

How did we find these children? A large group of four-year-olds had met the various counties' socioeconomic standards of eligibility for educational programs, and the parents of many of them had asked to have their children included in the programs. Not all the children could be accepted, however, and the various county systems limited enrollments by various administrative standards—taking children from certain neighborhoods only, for example.

The study group was drawn from the children who got into the programs; the control groups, from those who did not. These were children whose parents agreed to let me follow their children, testing them periodically or obtaining their test scores from school, for several years, although they understood that the children would be receiving no service of any kind. It is evident to me that these parents are just as motivated as the parents of the children in the study group—possibly more so.

To find out how much difference the programs made, furthermore, we used

There is evidence that the benefits of education for four-year-olds endure as they progress through primary school.

two groups of controls. Some children were staying home, not attending any type of preschool program. Others were in groups where they played with other four-year-olds but whose staff made no attempt to present an organized educational program. Consequently, we knew that if the children in the educational programs showed greater growth than the other children, it would not be due simply to having a good group experience, because children in one of our control groups also had had that good group experience.

Data obtained before the educational programs started indicated clearly that most of the children in the program were likely to have serious difficulties in school. They couldn't talk or understand language as well as most children their age, their memories were abnormally short, their vocabularies were quite limited, their attention spans were short, and they were not able to stay with a task for a period of time that could in any way be considered appropriate for children their age. Their achievements in the preschool programs and afterwards were the more remarkable because of these prior limitations.

Teachers made similar evaluations simply by observing the children. Several of them said they had quickly real-

The need is clear for a firm commitment to make the education of four-year-olds an integral part of our educational system, not just a brief demonstration of what we can do when we want to.

ized that they were dealing with very deprived youngsters. The children could not recognize the ordinary implements of a schoolroom. A crayon was a strange instrument. The children could see changing colors in the countryside and in the sunset, but the ability to produce changing colors at will on a piece of paper was a foreign experience.

The teachers recognized that they were moving children out of a restricted and isolated world into one that offered many more opportunities, even to someone at a four-year-old's level of understanding and expression. They often described the results of a program by saying that the children had come to express themselves verbally with greater detail.

The children were also much more questioning of the world around them. Youngsters who used to be quiet when a stranger entered the room had become interested in what that stranger had to offer. When I was introduced to one class late in the year, the children began to question me about my clothes. They rarely saw a man wearing a tie and jacket. They were very interested in my attempts to explain why I was wearing the tie and what it was for.

They easily moved into a discussion of whether all clothing had to be utilitarian. Then came the question of comfort: did all clothing have to be comfortable? The teaching staff were not leading this discussion. On their own, the children easily moved through the variety of topics that clothing differences should stimulate people to consider.

The children's increased verbal activity was not simply cause for pride. It also caused some difficulty in several of the programs. Both parents and kindergarten teachers had been used to a degree of passivity in children from this background. The sudden appearance of youngsters who, although polite, were verbally demanding caused a bit of a sensation in some homes and kindergarten classes. A few parents and teachers suggested that the children had become "bad."

A closer look at the "bad" behavior showed, however, that the adults had come to expect a degree of passivity that was in itself not normal, so that verbal activity seemed bad just because it was such a surprise. In most cases, this misperception cleared up quickly.

What kind of preschool programs accomplished these striking improvements? What did the teachers actually do? The answers to these questions bear on the interesting controversy about what is the best type of program for four-year-olds.

The many different programs in the study had a few things in common. They were directed by trained educators who had experience in working with young children. They had basic educational goals: everyone expected to help the children become better able to deal successfully with the standard elementary school program. Everyone was interested in increasing the children's ability to succeed in reading.

Just how to go about this, however, was another matter. Some of the programs concentrated on developing the children's cognitive abilities. They used programmed learning methods. The teaching staff carefully designed each step of each learning task to interest the children and to have a clear solution that could be reached in a short period of time. A child was not permitted to move on from one step to the next until the teacher had verified that the first step was mastered.

Other programs exposed children to enriching experiences which would generally serve as a basis for later learning. Teachers in these programs encouraged the children to explore colors, forms, and textures, in the abstract and in the real world. They put the youngsters in new situations and took them to new places to stimulate them to use descriptive language. Staff members of these programs made little effort, however, to get the children to solve problems successfully.

Some of the programs were more specifically concerned with developing the children's concepts of themselves. They included experiences that encouraged the children to discover what sort of people they were and to learn to see themselves as competent individuals.

Which type of program was best? The data indicate that when the teachers in any one of a variety of programs are well trained in the way four-year-olds function, and when they believe in what they are doing, the four-year-olds benefit from the program. No educational model should be presented as the single best way to educate four-year-olds.

Financial priorities being what they are, local education authorities have cut the funds for several of these clearly successful programs out of their budgets. This occurs at a time when HEW's Office of Human Development Services has reported that programs for four-year-olds have reduced both the number of low-income children assigned to special education programs and the frequency of grade retention for those following a regular curriculum.

We had given our own data, clearly indicating specific and concrete educational successes in both reading and mathematics, to all parties involved. This could not, however, prevent the loss of these programs. The need is clear for a firm commitment to make the education of the four-year-old an integral part of our educational system, not just a brief demonstration of what we can do when we want to. □

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MAGNET SCHOOLS Are They the Answer?

Does your school system suffer from a shortage of money? Parents resistant to integration? Clamor from all sides for change—individualized instruction, traditional discipline, career education, *and* open classrooms? Try setting up a few magnet schools. They may solve all your problems, or create a lot of new ones. Or both.

It's easy to toss out a broad definition of a magnet school: It's a school set up to draw students from outside its immediate neighborhood. It's hard, however, to say just how much magnet schools are accomplishing, because people, in the schools and outside, expect them to do so many different things.

Some of those goals pull in different directions; indeed, they may be entirely incompatible. Different people may expect the introduction of magnet schools both to cut a school budget, which is likely to cause a deterioration in learning conditions, and to improve test scores, which is likely to be the result of an improvement in learning conditions.

The first magnet schools in this country clearly were successes. Everyone agreed on their purpose: to give excellent college preparation to gifted students—for example, at Boys' Latin and Girls' Latin in Boston or Bronx Science in New York. Later, new, less scholarly, subjects of concentration were taken up, but the purpose was still to educate the gifted—Performing Arts in New York, Cass Technical in Detroit.

New magnet schools have arisen rapidly in the last decade, bringing the total from perhaps 20 to several thousand. The public that a new magnet serves is less likely to agree on the magnet's purpose: a measure of success by one standard, perhaps diversification of instruction, may be balanced by a degree of failure in another—integration, say.

More than one historical current at the end of the 1960's was conducive to the rapid spread of magnet schools. It had been a decade and a half since the Supreme Court's 1954 desegregation decision. People who believed that the

best education was offered in schools that White children attended had turned their attention to the integration of schools, North and South, that were segregated because their neighborhoods were segregated. Mandated busing was one method of attacking de facto segregation. Another method was to attract students out of their neighborhoods to attend schools with specialized programs.

At the same time, educational reformers condemned the inability of most existing school systems to offer a variety of ways of learning and of subject specialities to match students' learning styles, talents, and interests. Some alternative schools were established outside the public system. Within it, advocates of reform suggested establishing different kinds of schools and giving students and parents a choice among them.

Some school boards, wearied by the seemingly endless need to build places to educate more and more children, thought they could save at least a little money by cutting duplication of specialized services.

More recently, both students and employers have asked schools to provide students with more education for their specific future occupations.

With such a combination of forces behind their proliferation, small wonder that magnet schools have taken many forms and had varying degrees and kinds of success. Vernon Smith, director of the Center for Options in Public Education at Indiana University, lists many ways in which alternative schools may be distinctive:

- **Style of instruction.** An alternative school may specialize in, for example, open classroom, behavior modification, Montessori, free, or continuous progress instruction.
- **Curriculum.** A school may offer concentrated multicultural, bilingual, environmental, performing arts, or other specialized instruction. (Smith classifies magnet schools as curricular alternatives.)
- **Clienteles.** A school may be designed to attract young people who have dropped out of school, are likely to drop out of school, or get little out of ordinary classes—continuation schools, street academies, and evening schools are examples of such magnets. Other schools are designed to serve pregnant girls.
- **Resources.** Learning centers, schools without walls, vocational high schools, career centers, educational parks—all offer distinctive resources for learning.
- **Administrative arrangements** also may vary. An alternative school may be a satellite, a school-within a-school, part of a cluster of magnets, a separate autonomous school, or a mini-school.

The form that a district's magnet schools will take is shaped by the purpose of establishing the magnets, the characteristics of the locality, and who is doing the planning. A few examples will only indicate the apparently limitless variety of forms a magnet system can take.

- In Minneapolis, school people, working with the community, designed magnets beginning in 1970, as a response to community demand for alternative forms of education. The school board later incorporated the magnets into a desegregation plan.

The original alternatives were set up in a community where both university and industrial workers lived. It was already one of three decentralized school districts in the city. Almost 90 percent of the residents were White and English-speaking.

What the community wanted, and established, was a choice of a traditional, open, or continuous style of education for children in elementary school. In 1973, the Minneapolis School Board decided that by 1976 every child in the city would have the form of education his or her family chose.

By 1978, 15,000 of Minneapolis' 23,000 elementary pupils were going to schools they and their families had chosen. Modified traditional, modified open, and fundamental alternatives had been added, and the system of alternatives was being extended upward. The original district had attracted so many children from other districts that its pupil population was only 78 percent White.

- A panel of four masters appointed by Judge W. Arthur Garrity, Jr., conceived Boston's system of magnet schools in 1975, when a Minneapolis court had already made the alternatives there a part of its desegregation plan. Garrity's major purpose was to integrate Boston's schools and provide a good education there without giving occasion for more of the explosions of resentment that busing orders set off.

The panel envisioned 21 elementary, middle, and high school magnets, each with the same proportion of minority (49 percent) and White, English-speaking (51 percent) students as the district as a whole. Each was to draw 75 percent of its pupils from outside its attendance area.

The elementary and middle level magnets offered such specialties as multiculturalism, science, or language arts; the various high schools offered, for example, college preparation, science, performing and visual arts, and vocational and work/study programs. As part of the student desegregation plan, colleges and universities, cultural agencies, and businesses agreed to provide special materials or instruction for each of the schools. In addition, some schools had part-time magnet programs, which usually ended up being conducted after school.

At first, some magnets were underenrolled because one racial group or the other didn't fill its quota. Gradually, however, the magnets became popular. Writing in the *Phi Delta Kappan*, W. Charles McMillan, Director of the Center for Magnet Education at Lesley College in Cambridge, Massachusetts, has said that the success is not due to the magnet themes of the schools, which are sometimes so neglected as to be imperceptible. Rather, he suggested, the promise of general good education is attracting the students: good faculty, perhaps an established good reputation, buildings and facilities that are safe and in good condition, integrated education, and perhaps the special attention of some college, business, or cultural agency.

Another charm of the magnet schools is simply that attendance is chosen, not assigned. The alternative—mandatory assignment to a school where classmates are likely to be resentful imports from a neighboring enclave of another race—is a strong incentive for choosing integration with willing associates in a magnet.

• In Dallas, a multiethnic group of community and business leaders called the Alliance Task Force worked with Judge William Taylor to plan magnets as a way of integrating the schools. The resulting system of magnets has become a showcase of the species. Dallas' magnet high schools crown a network of elementary ("Vanguard Schools"), middle ("academies"), and high school magnets and are descendants of the Skyline Career Development Center. Skyline, set up in 1971, offers education in 25 vocational fields. Now, in addition to the Skyline Center, Dallas has seven other magnets: the Arts Magnet High School, the Business and Management Center, the Health Professions High School, the Human Services Center, the Law and Public Administration High School, the Transportation Institute, and a Multiple Careers Center for special education students. All have been set up since 1976.

In September 1978, the populations of five of the high schools were between a fourth and a half Anglo, and the Business Center was 9.8 percent Anglo. The Dallas Independent School District as a whole was about 44 percent Anglo. Blacks were a higher proportion of the students in these schools than in the district as a whole; Chicanos were underrepresented in the arts and health professions magnets, but exceptionally likely to attend the transportation and public administration schools.

For whatever purpose they were originally established, evidently magnet schools are likely to be pressed into the service of integration. Can magnet schools bring about racial balance within a school system?

Senator John Glenn of Ohio thinks so. Glen sponsored legislation to provide massive financial support for magnets. His idea is that magnet schools can make mandatory busing unnecessary in many cases: "The goal," he says, "is to provide schools with superior education—education so attractive to all racial groups that integration will occur naturally, rather than as a result of a government requirement."

The Dallas chapter of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), for one, disagrees with Senator Glenn in the case of its own city. In only five of Dallas' six subdistricts are students assigned to schools outside their neighborhoods to increase desegregation. The Dallas Independent School District (DISD) is to help the sixth, predominantly Black, to improve the quality of the schools there. An NAACP suit protesting this exclusion, but questioning the whole DISD integration plan as well, is currently being studied by a federal district judge at the request of a federal appeals court.

It appears, in fact, that magnet schools do encourage students of different races and backgrounds to go to school together in order to get some special kind of education in a good school, or just to go to a good school. But they can achieve the same racial balance as the city as a whole only when the possibility of involuntary integration increases their magnetic attraction.

In some localities, magnets may turn out to be the only means of bringing about integration. W. Charles McMillan of Massachusetts points out that if the present trend toward predominance of minority children in city schools continues, integration will require exchange between urban and suburban districts. If mandatory exchange is considered unconstitutional, magnet schools offer the best hope for integrated education in our big-city areas.

Magnet schools share one major problem with most other schools: to do what they're supposed to do requires money. To do what a magnet school is supposed to do—provide education of a caliber that will attract students—requires more money than the work of other schools. Money for special language or science or theatrical or business or industrial equipment. Money for special preparation of teachers. Money to publicize the program to parents and students. Just because it is something special, a magnet system can attract money and loans of facilities or staff from outside the school system. Usually, however, it still costs the school system more per pupil than the regular schools, and the extra money isn't always there.

Magnet schools also have some problems peculiar to their kind. Administrative arrangements aren't always smooth. A school-within-a-school, for example, can create difficulties of scheduling lunchtimes, transportation, extracurricular activities. Regular teachers and principals may envy the superior facilities, smaller class size, greater prestige, and motivated students of their colleagues in the magnets. If students are selected on any basis narrower than priority of application and racial balance, magnets incur resentment for taking the gifted—and perhaps disproportionately the better-off—out of the regular schools.

These difficulties suggest a serious question about magnet schools. Do they create inequality of educational opportunity? If they simply provided a special kind of education, the question wouldn't arise. But their budgets are special and they get special help. In many cases, no matter what their label, the education they offer is the same kind the other schools provide, just better supported.

Parents are free, of course, to apply for their children's admission to magnet schools. But unless all schools become magnets—seemingly a contradiction in terms—some children will be unable to attend magnets. The system will be open to charges of inequity towards those children.

Magnet schools may create practical and philosophical problems. They may not be able to do more toward desegregation than ease mandated levels of pupil transfer. Any idea that they can save money has long been dissipated. Such is the gap between intention and performance that they may not offer education that differs greatly in kind from that in other schools.

But the element of choice remains, and parents' evident conviction that the magnets provide better education. The magnets, with all their frailties, remain—many with waiting lists.

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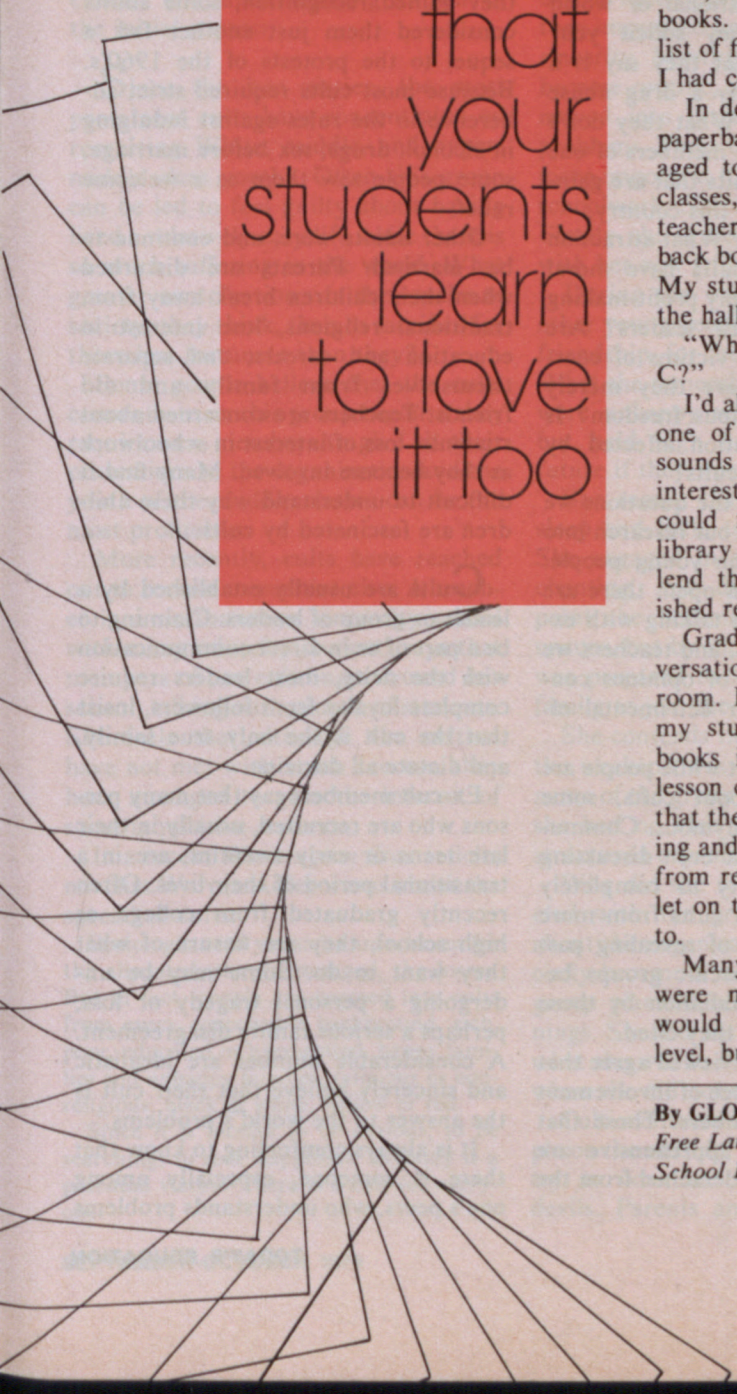

Teaching is loving something so much that your students learn to love it too. Joanne Brown, a 13-year-old in one of my classes, taught me that, and her mother came into the school building one Friday to let me know about it.

I was in my first year of teaching. It was a rugged but good year for me. I was eating, breathing, sleeping, even dreaming teaching.

But I found little time for reading for my own enjoyment. I was forever attending curriculum meetings, writing lesson plans, exchanging ideas with other teachers, marking papers and recording grades, keeping attendance records, worrying about class schedules, and studying grammar textbooks. I had hardly touched the long list of fiction and nonfiction books that I had compiled while I was in college.

In desperation, I started carrying a paperback book in my purse. I managed to read a page or two between classes, in the cafeteria line, and before teachers' meetings started. A paperback book became part of my costume. My students began to question me in the hall or before classes.

"What are you reading today, Miss C?"

I'd always tell them, and sometimes one of them would say, "Hey, that sounds good." If they were really interested, I'd tell them where they could find the book in the school library or a bookstore, or, more often, lend them my copy when I had finished reading it.

Gradually our informal book conversations lapped over into the classroom. I was well aware that at times my students kept me talking about books in order to avoid a grammar lesson or a vocabulary test, but I felt that they would learn more from reading and talking about good books than from regular assignments. So I didn't let on that I knew what they were up to.

Many of the books I was reading were not on what reading experts would call an eighth grade reading level, but the students wanted to know about them, so I told them. I soon became aware that some of those teenagers were stretching to read things that were over their heads, but I decided that couldn't hurt them either.

Most important, we were enjoying ourselves. I was having a great time talking about my favorite subject. My students were enjoying participating in the conversations.

Joanne was having the most fun. She was an inspiration—a voracious reader. Whenever I mentioned a title or author, she found the book and read it, and others would follow suit.

Then someone came up with the idea that we set up a classroom library. Joanne was one of the leading spirits who helped organize it.

We all donated paperbacks to get it started. Then we used contributions and overdue fines to purchase new books from a teenage book club and a local book store.

The school librarian gave us some book pockets and cards, and we set up a simple system in which everyone checked out books unassisted. A volunteer student librarian periodically followed up on overdue books. We tossed overdue fines into the book fund.

I checked out and read books right along with my students. They especially loved it when I read a book that they recommended.

"Hey, Miss C, have you read this one yet?" they'd ask.

"No, I haven't," I'd reply. "What's it about?" They would answer my question by doing more thinking and talking about books than they would have if I had assigned formal oral reports.

Eventually my students were reading so many books that I felt it was only fair to give them credit toward their English grades. They kept a record of their reading on a chart. After completing a book, they entered the title, author, and a short synopsis on the chart.

I tried to keep the reading on a noncompetitive basis because I knew that some students were faster readers than others. Yet students vied to see who could fill up their charts first.

Joanne took the lead, but she didn't show off about it, and I was glad to see

(continued on page 86)

By GLORIA COSGROVE CHANTLAND
Free Lance Writer and Former High School English Teacher.

RELIGIOUS CULTS What

You meet them in airports, on busy streets, in places where large numbers of people congregate. They seek to discuss current national or world issues with you. They solicit your financial help for what they say is a worthy cause, possibly a drug abuse prevention program. What they don't reveal is that they are members of one of several religious cults that are gaining in membership in this country.

What are the cults? What attraction do they hold? Do cults have moral value, or are they simply profit-making organizations for their leaders? Are young cult members victims of coercive persuasion, or are they merely practicing their religious freedom? Is our children's education affected by their membership in cults?

These are some of the questions we asked when we began our research into the effects of cults on young people. The questions remain open: there are too many answers. In talking with ex-cultists, their parents, and teachers we found a great range of opinions concerning the worth or detrimental effects of cults.

We found, too, that while people are very opinionated about cults, some prefer to remain anonymous. Community pressures against even discussing cults, public inability to completely distinguish extremist cults from more moderate ones, fear of revealing past involvement with specific groups because of possible retaliation by those groups were reasons they cited.

Most persons interviewed agree that cults vary in the degree of involvement they require of members. Those that make people most apprehensive are cults that are totally detached from the outside world.

Cults—at least, in their contemporary versions—became popular in the United States in the early 1970's. As they gained recognition, some adults considered them just another fad, a sequel to the protests of the 1960's. Because most cults required strict adherence to the rules against indulging in alcohol, drugs, sex before marriage, some people saw them as a welcome relief.

Other adults were, and continue to be, alarmed. Parents are disturbed when their children break away from traditional religions, lose interest in education and careers, and separate themselves from family and old friends. Teachers are concerned about students' loss of interest in schoolwork as they become involved. Many find it difficult to understand why these children are fascinated by cults.

Cults are usually established by a leader or group of leaders. Claiming to be a part of or in direct communication with the deity, most leaders require complete loyalty from followers, insist that the cult is the only true family, and dictate all doctrine.

Ex-cult members say that many persons who are recruited, usually in their late teens or early twenties, are in a transitional period of their lives. Often recently graduated from college or high school, they are unsure of what they want to do. Some may be undergoing a personal tragedy or loss, perhaps a serious family disagreement. A considerable number are idealistic and sincerely believe that their cult is the answer to the world's problems.

It is always comforting to know that there is someone, especially among one's peers, who understands problems

should teachers know—and do—about them?

and apparently has some answers. The cults' major attraction for perplexed young people is the friendship, togetherness, and understanding shown in the initial contact.

Since the late sixties, the most prominent cults have concentrated on recruiting White, middle, and upper-middle class youths. Often this group can be led to feel guilty about having lived a relatively easy life while there is so much suffering in the world. What greater contribution can they make to society, they think, than to sacrifice for those less fortunate than they?

Some people believe that the cults concentrate on this group because they require new members to give all their possessions to the organization and the youth of the middle classes can be the most profitable.

More recently, cults have reached out to recruit minorities also. A teacher in a northeastern inner-city school with many minority students says that members of one cult linger around her school, talking with groups of students. She feels that although the cultists have not met with much success, they have managed to gain the interest of some inquisitive students.

In a recent *Washington Star* article, novelist Warren Adler warns about the spread of cults:

> Sociologists tell you cults are a haven for the alienated, the discouraged, the losers. But in fact, people are coerced into cults from every conceivable background, rich, poor, educated or uneducated, happy families and unhappy families, religious or non-religious, black or white, yellow or red.
>
> Since it is human to be curious, to be searching, to seek happiness, anybody is a potential victim. There is a cult for everyone.

An ex-cultist tells how she was recruited: She met a young man and woman on her high school campus one day at lunch time. Chatting with her, they impressed her with their apparent sincerity. Meeting with them at lunch became routine, and the conversations moved into discussions about world problems. These conversations became more important to the student than her schoolwork. She began to cut classes. Finally, she agreed to spend a weekend with her new friends.

During the weekend visit, she met other young people. They, too, showed friendship for her and one another. What she remembers most is that they were unhappy with world conditions but held high hopes for a brighter future if they worked together.

She recalls that she got very little sleep and little to eat that weekend. She engaged in singing lively songs, chanting, and discussions. At what point she became committed, she is unsure, but by the end of the visit, she was prepared to leave school and her family to join the cult.

She contends that at no time during the weekend was she informed of the name of the group or its leader. In fact, she had no idea that it was a highly structured organization.

Why did she remain after she traveled with the group and found out about the organization? Once she officially became a member, she says, the group planned her days and her evenings. She did not have to think about what she was to do, and she felt guilty when she did not conform.

Cult members are taught that people on the outside, especially those who try to convince them to leave, are devils. Parents and old friends most often fall into this category. These "devils" are to be avoided at all costs. New members are assigned "brothers" or "sisters." While the recruit may feel that this person is there because he or she wants to be a personal friend, the real purpose is to determine the recruit's response to the doctrine, and, above all, to be sure the recruit is not lost.

Living conditions for cultists vary. Members of some cults reportedly are poorly clothed and undernourished. People who have visited other cults say that the living quarters, while meager, are clean. They describe the young members as living as a happy, sacrificing family.

One parent, after searching for about a year, located her son. He was living in another state, in a rat-infested tenement with over 100 other young people. They seemed happy, but unhealthy. She noticed that her son had lost a tremendous amount of weight and had cavities in his teeth.

The cult leader, on the other hand, lived in completely different surroundings. His home, the parent said, was a mansion, filled with servants. She confronted her son with the differences in living conditions. He readily admitted that the leader lived in a much more beautiful place but insisted that this was necessary. The leader needed a place to think, to pronounce doctrines, to communicate with the deity. Her son considered himself lucky that he was one of the chosen; he was dedicated to working for the cult.

Most cults have two major jobs for their members: fund raising and recruiting. Fund raising may consist of

soliciting donations, selling such articles as flowers or candy, or cleaning carpets or doing other daywork. Members work long hours and pledge that they will earn a specific amount of money before returning home. They turn money they receive over to the leader.

Cults that are financially solvent may have members working in restaurants or other places of business that they own.

Minor jobs may include preparing food or taking care of other necessities for the cult itself.

Recruiters are cult members of long standing. They have proved their loyalty to the group and may be free to travel alone. After participating in sophisticated training sessions, they know where to look, how to spot potential candidates, and how to develop a friendship.

Whether recruits are victims of brainwashing techniques or are simply practicing their religious freedom is debatable. Parents spend large sums of money to locate their children and convince them to come home, but they sometimes find their children unwilling to leave a cult. This, the parents contend, is because brainwashing has already taken effect.

One ex-cultist does not feel that he was victimized. He was aware of what he was getting into and did so willingly. He left when he felt that the group no longer met his needs.

Another young man, who was an engineering student at the time he was recruited, has now left the cult. He says that in the cult he learned to hate his parents and everything they believed in. When he saw them, however, he did not want to hurt them; he felt that they were victims of an evil society. He was sorry that they could not see the worth of his group.

In the few periods when he had doubts about his cult, someone was always around to remove those doubts. His day-to-day activities were so structured that he had little time to consider the right or wrong of what he was doing. Raising money was his job, and he felt fulfilled when he met his daily quota.

After finally leaving the cult and spending several years readjusting to society, this young man views the cults from a different perspective. Thinking back, he finds it hard to believe that he was such a pawn. This former cultist does believe that he was brainwashed and is resentful of his former associates in the cult.

Magazine and newspaper articles report horrible sacrifices made by cult members. The People's Temple cult in Guyana and the Charles Manson "Family" are perhaps the worst examples of cult influence in recent times.

In those two groups, leaders had almost total control of the minds of their followers. Parents, teachers, and public figures have expressed concern that any organization can wield so great an influence over a group of individuals.

Could there be more horror stories? Possibly. Just recently, a news article reported a cult leader's admission that at his headquarters in the Southeast, he and his members have large amounts of weapons and ammunition. This, he claims, is protection against harassment from the outside. Local authorities express great concern about this revelation.

What does this mean for teachers? Surely young people should know—indeed, they have a right to know—what cults are and how they function. Some schools are giving their students this information. Teachers in social studies and other subjects, careful to avoid judging any particular sect, are exposing young people to ideas about cults.

David Moore, in his class at Shawnee Intermediate School in Easton, Pennsylvania, discusses the distinctions between cults and traditional religions, emphasizing that traditional religions look up to a supreme being for direction whereas most cults look up to other human beings. He includes his discussion of cults in his unit on religion. Currently he is developing a bibliography that his classes may use.

"Teachers should remain objective when teaching about cults and allow students to do the reading and questioning," Mr. Moore says.

Students are inquisitive about cults, so they'll do plenty of research.

It is most important that they understand what cults are all about so that if they are faced with the choice of joining, they can independently decide whether they wish to become involved.

A teacher in Charlotte, North Carolina, agrees that interest is high. When assigning her class research papers, she lists a number of topics from which they may choose. Recently, when she included religious cults as one of the choices, a surprising number of students chose this topic.

As a follow-up to the research assignment, the teacher had her students present panel discussions based on their work. The presentation on cults was among the most interesting the teacher remembers; everyone in the class became involved in an unusually lively discussion.

The sudden popularity of cults raises the question of how young people arrive at important decisions. Bertie Jeffress Powell, associate professor of English and coordinator of English education programs at Virginia State College in Petersburg, believes that teachers in both secondary and higher education should provide more opportunities for students to make decisions.

She believes that one serious problem in our society is that many of us suffer from a follow-the-leader syndrome and that schools should make every effort to reverse this trend. Our students should feel comfortable in expressing their views and in disagreeing with others," she says.

Dr. Powell suggests that one method of accomplishing this goal is to deal realistically with topics that interest students. She suggests that teachers build thematic units around such topics as religious cults. Students thus have an opportunity to think for themselves about a topic that relates to what they expect to do with their own lives.

Use the topic of cults to get students to do research, these teachers are saying, and to give them practice in methods of reaching sound decisions. At the same time, you'll be bringing an obscure subject into the open.

The subject remains controversial, however. People in the community may believe it has no place in their schools. Thus the situation gives teachers, too, a chance to practice making wise decisions.

—**Marian S. Clayton,** *editorial associate,* Today's Education.

Quiz for Cooperating Teachers

What is one of the best yet easiest ways of helping your student teachers? (Check one.)

☐ Explaining how to repair a ditto machine

☐ Telling them how to deal with irate parents.

☐ Showing them how to fill out administrative forms quickly

☐ Telling them about membership in **Student NEA**

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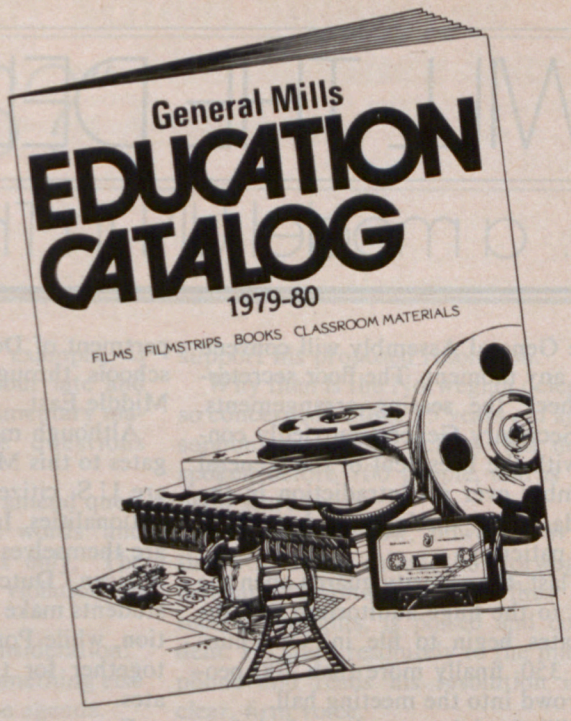

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 15

"WILL THE DELEGATES PLEASE

. . . a model UN in The Hague

The General Assembly will convene at any moment. The floor secretaries check the seating arrangements. The Secretary General hurriedly confers with the President of the General Assembly over a contradiction in the agenda. The distinguished speaker waits patiently.

At last, the security guards open the doors to the huge auditorium and the delegates begin to file in. One hundred, 350, finally more than 700 people crowd into the meeting hall.

"Will the delegates please find their tables and take their seats?"

"Where's Afghanistan's table?" one delegate, already confused, asks a security guard.

"On the stairs to the balcony."

"That figures." Afghanistan is going to have some problems getting recognized. "Well, at least we're first on the roll call of nations to give our opening speech."

Soon the delegates are settled. A brass prelude signals the start of the day's proceedings.

"Good morning and welcome. The tenth Model United Nations is now in session."

Each year high school and college groups in the United States organize Model UN's involving about 40,000 young people. With advice from the UN Association of the USA, students and their advisers organize a Model UN, which usually involves several institutions, and raise the money for its expenses.

The American School of The Hague, Netherlands, hosts the European Model UN, now in its twelfth year. This Model UN attracts students from nearly 60 independent and Department of Defense and other public schools throughout Europe and the Middle East.

Although most of the student delegates to this Model UN at The Hague are U.S. citizens, dozens are of other nationalities. In fact, some delegations are themselves miniature UN's. South African, Dutch, British, and Indian students make up the Nigerian delegation, while Portuguese and Irish work together for the United Arab Emirates.

For most students the four days of this Model UN culminate many months of preparation. Selection and training procedures vary among the participating schools. Many begin with an initial training period of from six to eight weeks in which the students attend lectures and special classes, read about and discuss world affairs, and explore the almost mystical intricacies of parliamentary procedure. After the final teams are selected, the work intensifies. Delegates write to the embassies, sometimes even the chiefs of state of "their" nations, seeking up-to-date material to add that extra measure of understanding. A meeting with an ambassador or other government representatives is not unusual. By the time the delegates leave for the Model UN, they *are* the representatives of those nations.

The first order of business is the introduction of the distinguished speaker, a teacher who has been associated with this Model UN since its inception in 1968. He recalls that while many issues have come and gone during the past decade, the conflict in the Middle East and the *apartheid* policy in South Africa have always been on the agenda in one form or another. They still are.

The speaker also poses a question which is central to the students' participation in the Model UN. Should the delegates slavishly imitate the real delegates to the United Nations? Or should they follow their own ideals to find solutions to the problems at hand? It is a dilemma the delegates do not always face squarely.

To provide more variety in the roll call, the President asks the distinguished speaker to choose a country at random to begin the alphabetical order. He draws Argentina. Afghanistan drops to fourth from last place on the roll call.

"Is the Argentine delegate present?"

"Argentina is present and wishes to address the General Assembly."

"Please approach the podium, Argentina."

It is a pattern to be repeated nearly 150 times today. Argentina gives a typical opening speech, calling for "self-determination" of all peoples, especially those of Namibia and the Western Sahara, and the Palestinians. The "illegal racist *apartheid* regime of South Africa" hears itself denounced for the first, but certainly not the last, time. Following Argentina's speech, South Africa "exercises its right of reply" for the first, but certainly not the last, time as well.

Some delegates make their opening speeches in the native tongues of the nations they are representing. Spanish and French are fairly common; Norwegian and Malay also are heard.

The languages are just one way in which the delegates try to give the assembly a greater aura of authenticity. National costumes appear as well.

The tone of the opening speeches gives an excellent indication of which delegations will be amenable to discussion and compromise. As a rule, the superpowers are cautious; the Western European nations, mellifluous and soothing; the Third World, vociferous and often strident.

Parliamentary procedure can be cumbersome and time-consuming. Some delegates are masters at its use,

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TAKE THEIR SEATS?"

although sometimes for disruptive or dilatory purposes. The President of the General Assembly uses it as it was intended, to maintain orderly interchange in a large gathering.

The Assembly proceeds. Lobbying takes on some of the characteristics of horse trading. "You support my resolution on human rights, and I'll support yours on designating the Indian Ocean a nuclear-free zone." The delegates know their business. Blocs of nations—the Nordic Council, the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC), Organization of African Unity (OAU), Organization of American States (OAS)—meet frequently to coordinate their efforts.

When the speeches conclude, it is nearly 5 p.m. Amendments to the agenda will have to wait until the next day.

"If there are no other points on the floor, I declare this session adjourned. Will Margo Swain come to the podium? We have your bus pass."

The second day of the Model UN is a joy for some, a confusion for many, an exercise in frustration for most, and a challenge for all. This Model UN has nine permanent committees. These committees and the Security Council meet all day, hammering out the agenda for the General Assembly. Each committee is assigned three or four specific questions on which delegates attempt to get their resolutions presented, debated, and adopted. Each committee has from 50 to 90 members, who present literally dozens of resolutions, counterresolutions, amendments, and amendments to amendments. Each committee will report from three to six resolutions. Those that survive face an even greater trial in the General Assembly.

Several committees run relatively smoothly and cover their agendas in time to adjourn a little early. Others are not so fortunate. The Human Rights Committee, for example, is called to order half an hour late and spends two hours in parliamentary maneuvering to have the questions changed.

"Uganda would like to amend question one by deleting the words 'and Uganda,' so that it reads only, 'The question of human rights violations in South Africa.' "

"Objection to the consideration!" Uganda will have to try something else to keep its name out of the agenda.

The rhetoric quickly becomes heated. The use of parliamentary procedures becomes a powerful weapon to confound one's enemies and to drive home one's own points. Some delegates use points of order, personal privilege, information, and parliamentary inquiry—all meant to facilitate debate—to harass a delegate who has the floor.

After tempers cool and nerve ends reknit, delegates can remember the constructive aspects of the meetings. Guiding a finely crafted resolution through the rocky shoals of the committee and safely into the agenda is an exciting experience for a nervous teenaged delegate. The threatened tabling and the angry objections are forgotten, and the successful delegate basks in the words, "This motion has passed."

The Norwegian delegate is worried, although the reason for his anxiety is somewhat difficult to pinpoint. His resolution on the banning of biological weapons was well-received in the Disarmament Committee on the second day. After spirited debate, it passed unamended, a rare occurrence. Today, the third day of the Model UN, his resolution is fifth on the agenda. Unlike some items further down the list, it will actually be presented and discussed.

The Norwegian delegate has garnered 24 cosponsors from every quarter of the globe who are pledged to support his proposed resolution.

Why then is the Norwegian delegate so concerned? He is 15 years old and a sophomore in high school, has never spoken before 700 people, and is just plain scared.

It does not show, however. When the fifth item is called, the Norwegian delegate, despite his butterflies and second thoughts, is poised and confident. He steps resolutely to the microphone and reads his resolution in a clear, firm voice.

Someone objects to the consideration of the resolution, but the Assembly chooses to consider it. Debate time is set at five minutes for, five minutes against.

At last the President says, "We are now in voting procedure on the resolution as presented by Norway." The vote is taken and counted. "The vote is 74 in favor, 27 against. This resolution has passed."

All anxieties are swept away on a burst of applause. Congratulatory hands slap the delegate's back.

"You did it, Dave!"

Several factors combine to make the last day the most memorable of the Model UN. One of them is time: not much is left. The delegates realize that if they are to accomplish even a fraction of what they set out to do, they will have to expedite matters. They do this by maintaining better order than previously and wasting less time making dilatory motions.

A second factor is suspense. The delegates know that sometime today there is going to be a "crisis." They are possessed of no special clairvoyant powers. They are simply anticipating the outcome of a competition held among them earlier for the best crisis situation, to be judged by standards of probability and of possibility for UN action. They do not know what the crisis is or when it will be, but they do know that it is coming.

The purpose of the crisis is to test the delegates' abilities to react rationally and realistically to a sudden and serious threat to world peace.

"The chair requests that all delegates take their seats. The security guards will ask all delegates in the lobby to return to the General Assembly. The Secretary General has an important announcement."

The atmosphere is electric as the delegates come to order. The Secretary General steps to the rostrum.

We have just received word that the Ian Smith government of Rhodesia has been overthrown by a military invasion. The attack was made by Mozambican and Cuban troops, backed by a massive Soviet airlift, placing the Popular Front for the Liberation of Zimbabwe in power. The country has now been renamed Zimbabwe. Amnesty International has reported genocide against the white minority. This cannot be confirmed, however. . . .

Uncertainty about both the veracity of the reports and the proper course of action prompts a multitude of points of information to the chair.

"What is the source of these genocide reports?" asks the Mozambican delegate. "It is evident to us that this is merely capitalist propaganda."

"I move that this question be referred immediately to the Security Council for action."

Many are opposed. "This is a matter for all the nations of the UN to discuss, not just the Security Council."

South Africa takes the floor. "South Africa deplores this clear violation of the rights of a sovereign nation. We believe that this is not a time for debate, but a time for action." South Africa pledges 10,000 troops to aid the supporters of the Smith government in repelling the invasion.

The Soviets, naturally, disagree, and so do most of their supporters. The African nations are badly divided. Meetings are called by the OAU, OAS, NATO, and OPEC. Pandemonium reigns.

The referral to the Security Council fails. However, a motion to send UN peacekeeping forces is passed and goes to the Security Council for consideration. A Soviet veto of any action on the matter then prompts an incredible motion by Upper Volta, China, and West Germany: that the Soviet Union lose its veto power in the Security Council. The incensed Soviets storm out of both the Security Council *and* the General Assembly. News of all this throws the General Assembly into greater uproar than ever.

If the General Assembly had more time, it would probably "solve" the "crisis," but it is getting late in the day, near the final adjournment.

Sentiment dominates the closing ceremonies. The delegates and their advisers have chosen 10 delegations to give closing speeches. The most valuable delegations are recognized. The President is thanked for her fairness, the Secretary General for his expertise, the secretaries and security guards for their dedication, the advisers for their patience. The General Assembly is adjourned, *sine die*.

A dance is held later in the evening. The Greek and Turkish delegates dance together. Two French delegates sing a duet. Upper Volta dedicates a song to the President of the General Assembly: "Takin' Care of Business."

For four days they were world leaders. Now they are kids again. □

Resources on the UN

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Model UN Survival Kit. Provides essential information for students and teachers planning to attend a Model UN. Contains *Delegate Preparation Guide, Basic Facts About the UN, Issues Before the 34th General Assembly,* UN Charter, Universal Declaration of Human Rights, voting records on selected resolutions of the 33rd General Assembly, list of information services of member nations, assorted fact sheets on UN issues, and a one-year subscription to the *Inter Dependent,* the periodical of the UN Association of the USA. $7.50.

Listing of Model UN Conferences, 1979-80. Lists whom to contact about almost 100 Model UN conferences held across the country. 50¢.

Information Services and Embassies in the United States of Members of the United Nations. Lists whom to contact for information on all member nations. 25¢.

Fact Sheets on the UN*

United States Contributions to the United Nations. What the United States contributes and where it goes. 1 p. 100 for $3.

Comparative Contributions of Member States. How contributions of UN member nations rank in terms of total and per-capita amounts and of percentages of gross national product. 1 sheet. 100 for $3.

The World Food Supply: The Continuing Crisis. An update on the world food situation, describing follow-up actions taken since the 1974 World Food Conference. Also discusses U.S. food aid policy. 4 pp. 100 for $5.

The UN and Southern Africa: End of an Era? Summarizes historical events and highlights of UN and U.S. actions concerning the Republic of South Africa, Rhodesia, and Namibia. 4 pp. 100 for $5.

The UN and the Middle East. Review of the continuing role of the UN in the Middle East from 1947 to the present. Includes a brief history of Israel and the Palestinians. 4 pp. 100 for $5.

Aids For Teaching About the UN*

Learning About Global Cooperation. 1977. A compilation of current selected materials recommended by leading educators, for use by both teachers and students. 28 pp. $1.50.

Helping Boys and Girls Discover the World: Teaching About Global Concerns and the United Nations in Elementary and Middle Schools. UNESCO, 1978. A practical guide for classroom teachers, curriculum specialists, and administrators. Answers to 40 questions most frequently asked regarding education about global concerns and the UN. 80 pp. $2.50.

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Books

The Literacy Hoax: The Decline of Reading, Writing, and Learning in the Public Schools and What We Can Do About It by **Paul Copperman.** Morrow. 323 pp. $10.95.

Critics of the public schools have praised Paul Copperman's criticism of our schools in *The Literacy Hoax.* Newscasters have reported his criticism as fact on network television. As a result Copperman has testified before a U.S. Senate subcommittee investigating the status of basic skills in education. Disturbingly, his one-sided assessment—grounded in unscholarly use of data and flawed logic—has received national attention without being challenged.

The success of Copperman's diatribe is not surprising. Such criticism based on limited information provoked the back-to-the-basics movement and its attendant unstudied solutions such as minimum competency testing. Educational change ought, however, to be based on a synthesis of all the best information. *The Literacy Hoax* is anything but that.

Copperman's selected data occupy only 20 of the 323 pages of *Hoax.* Copperman uses—sometimes misuses—his few facts to depict a "sharp and massive" nationwide decline in "academic achievement."

Copperman's misuse of data is exemplified by his overreliance on Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) scores as an assessment of basic literacy. The SAT does not measure basic literacy; it measures a very high level of reading ability. Because only college-bound high school juniors and seniors take the test, it does not provide a measure for non-college-bound juniors and seniors or for students in the other 10 grades. Moreover, the SAT is designed to assess aptitude, not achievement. To interpret the SAT as a general measure of functional literacy is therefore a gross misuse of this test.

Copperman also argues that data from a reading study conducted by the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) support his claim that literacy among students is dropping. He admits that the skills scores of nine-year-olds improved between 1971 and 1975 while those of 13- and 17-year-olds were relatively stable. He notes that there was a small decline on test items that measured advanced comprehension for the upper two ages. He fails to report that 13- and 17-year-olds improved slightly on literal comprehension and that 17-year-olds improved slightly on reference skills. Nor does he report that none of the differences the NAEP found—except the gain for nine-year-olds—were statistically significant.

Generally, Copperman's treatment of data is flawed in several ways:

- He compares the scores of different populations or of the same populations but on different tests.
- He combines studies of test data on mathematical computation with those on reading achievement.
- He fails to consider the significant differences in the content of tests at different grade levels.

Perhaps it is his penchant for mixing data that leads Copperman to criticize my own research on reading achievement (Roger Farr and others. *Reading Development in the United States: Then and Now.* Bloomington, IN: Indiana University, 1974) for not discussing SAT and American College Testing (ACT) program scores. In fact, in the study he cites, my colleagues and I deliberately excluded those two measures of (primarily) aptitude so that we would not carelessly mix aptitude and achievement data.

He also criticizes us for using no test renorming data after 1960. Renorming data is weak as achievement data because it uses different tests on varying populations. We used it before 1960 only because not much else was available then on achievement.

What Copperman ignores—or never read—in this and other studies are references to such recent developments as the following: a marked increase in numbers of minority students taking tests; the increasing holding power of the schools, resulting in sharp decreases in dropout rates; or extensive socioeconomic changes in urban areas. He prefers to spread his numbers in a vacuum.

Copperman labels me "one of the biggest apologists for our public schools." The public schools need no apologists. In budgeting quality into equality, they have done a remarkable job.

Copperman seems to be unaware that interpeting changes in test scores over a period of time is difficult even when a study is highly controlled. A valid comparison study must determine that the socioeconomic nature of the school population has not changed significantly. Factors such as school dropout rates, promotion policies, length of school year, and class size also must be studied before any valid conclusions regarding achievement trends can be drawn. Copperman avoids any discussion or analysis of these issues.

When Copperman turns to reasons for the alleged drop in student literacy levels, he is on even less firm ground. His potpourri of causes includes open education, electives in the high school, the abandonment of basal readers, and the lack of authority of teachers and principals.

Very little of this cause-effect thesis is based on research. For example, Copperman fails to provide evidence of the extent of the educational practices he laments. His choice of causes seems to be based mainly on his biases against certain educational practices, on personal observations, and on selected interviews he has conducted. The latter two kinds of sources can, of course, provide legitimate research data if the researcher collects the information in ways that guarantee some generalizability. No one can be sure, however, how Copperman selected the persons he interviewed or whether they were representative. Copperman's anecdotal data are interesting, but they hardly provide a reasonable base for the bold generalizations he draws from them.

The importance of understanding the limitations of Copperman's book does not rest merely on the need for accurate scholarly analysis. Critics such as Copperman grab the attention of the media and focus that attention on limited solutions to problems that are either nonexistent or misconstrued. If education is going to improve, educators and the public must understand its strengths and accomplishments and carefully analyze the complex interactions between all segments of society that produce literacy in the population. We need to continue studying our programs in order to identify weaknesses and build on strengths. Copperman's book makes this process more difficult.

Reviewed by **Roger Farr,** *professor of education, Indiana University, Bloomington; director of H. L. Smith Center for Research in Education; and president of the International Reading Association.*

White Teacher by **Vivian Gussin Paley.** Harvard. 140 pp. $8.95.

Paley's entertaining and thought-provoking book recounts Black children's feelings of difference in the predominantly White kindergarten in which she teaches. Her own memories of rejection as a Jewish child provide a parallel experience for interpreting the Black

(continued on page 84)

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Books

(continued)

children's concerns.

The book's theme could (and should) be extended to any difference not valued by the culture which has high status. Paley does not make this extension, however. In fact, she limits her discussion in several ways which may limit the applications that readers will make of her ideas.

First, Paley's focus on the differences between the characteristics of Black and White children rather than of children from valued and rejected cultures may diminish the impact of her astute and sensitive observations.

Second, because Paley has limited her skilled insight to five-year-olds, the reader may not make the generalizations to other levels of schooling and to the integrative problems of society that go beyond color and culture. As she so sensitively articulates, when situations such as she describes occur among White children, the schools deal with them as student problems, not color problems.

This book also constitutes an indictment of teacher education. Given our current knowledge, it is inexcusable that teachers have to "intuit" how to deal with characters that appear in every classroom, regardless of anyone's color: the angry, obstreperous student; the uncomfortable parent; the child whose only safety is in being "good." It is also inexcusable that teachers have to "intuit" how to deal with the conspiracy of silence which results from inability to discuss issues in emotionally loaded areas. Paley poignantly recounts her own feelings of "muddling through": "Awkwardness with Black children . . . uncovered a serious flaw in my relationships with all children."

Finally, Paley does not indicate the necessity for teachers to have proper training in order to interpret children's behavior at play. Thus readers who are unfamiliar with the depth of information that children's play reveals may feel the book is entertaining but not relevant beyond the situations described.

Paley, however, suggests some profound conclusions:

1. People, whatever their culture, are more the same than they are different. "The Black child is every child—no manner of speaking or unique approach or special environment is required only for the Black child."

2. Differences are not necessarily deficiencies.

3. The job of the teacher is to teach. Love, compassion, and understanding are not enough.

4. Any society must have teachers with professional competence, not just cultural similarity to their students.

5. We in education have much to learn.

Reviewed by **Madeline C. Hunter,** *principal, University Elementary School, University of California at Los Angeles.*

Children of Che: Childcare and Education in Cuba by **Karen Wald.** Ramparts Press. 400 pp. $4.95.

Che Guevara, the Cuban revolutionary leader who died leading a guerrilla movement in Bolivia, once said that he wanted to build a society which would develop a new man. In *The Children of Che,* Karen Wald tries to show how Castro's Cuba has developed such "new men."

Wald, a free-lance journalist who has an M.A. in early childhood education, has visited Cuba and spoken to children, their parents, and their teachers. She concludes that the Cuban people have made tremendous accomplishments under Castro's leadership, but that the greatest accomplishment has been the improvement in the educational opportunities offered Cuban children. The Castro regime, she believes, is providing people with education skills; they can now begin to make their own choices.

When she tries to show how politically wise Cuban children are, however, how aware of what is happening in the world, Wald generally ends up quoting children who spout revolutionary doctrines and charge the United States government—but not the American people—with imperialism.

Children of Che is too propagandistic; it does not have a balanced approach. The book leaves the impression that everything in Cuba was terrible before the revolution and that everything is wonderful there now.

Reviewed by **Braulio Alonso,** *director of international relations, NEA.*

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that I had such an enthusiastic reader in the class. That's why I was so surprised when the intercom in my room buzzed that Friday afternoon at four o'clock.

"Miss Cosgrove," the secretary said, "Mrs. Brown, Joanne Brown's mother, is here. She'd like to see you." I was stuffing papers and textbooks into a tote bag and getting ready to leave. It had been a hectic week.

Why would Joanne's mother want to see me, I wondered. Joanne was my prize student. What problem could she be having? I was baffled. I was also tired. I wanted to go home and collapse.

"Shall I tell her you're leaving now, and ask her to make an appointment for next week?" the secretary inquired.

"No. No. Send her up," I answered. Might as well face whatever it is now, I decided. I waited. In a few minutes, a buoyant Mrs. Brown walked through the door of my classroom.

"Miss Cosgrove," she said, "I'm sorry I'm keeping you, but I just had to stop to *see* you."

"That's quite all right," I smiled, wondering just what it was she expected to see. "What is the problem?"

"Oh, there's no problem. I just want to thank you."

"Thank me?"

"Yes, it's just fantastic what you've done for Joanne this year. I've been trying to get her interested in reading for years."

"But she's a voracious reader," I replied.

"She wasn't until this year. But now all she talks about is how Miss Cosgrove read this book and Miss Cosgrove read that book and how Miss Cosgrove really loves to read. She's been plowing through books at a great rate. I just had to stop by and thank you."

Still thanking me, she left the room. I stood there in disbelief. Lesson plans, teachers meetings, and textbooks have their place, I thought, tossing a paperback into my tote bag. But beyond them, teaching is loving something so much that your students learn to love it too—sometimes without your even realizing it's happening. □

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Letters

(continued)

Career Education

Some of the preconceived ideas of SUNY Chancellor Wharton (and too many university administrators and instructors) in "Career Education at the College Level" (April-May) are well-illustrated by his choice of words—career *education* and university *training*. He, however, has seemingly missed the significance of these words.

Too many liberal arts instructors and universities are trying to train people to regurgitate the material presented, and they cannot accept any questioning of their training or training methods. Instructors in good career programs are trying to educate individuals for fulfilling work, both economically and through the satisfaction of a job well done.

Good career education programs educate individuals for many of the qualities that Chancellor Wharton desires—for example, the need to question, weigh information, and make decisions.

Chancellor Wharton tends to show the attitude held by a majority of liberal arts instructors assigned to "teach" general education to our career or vocational students. That attitude is one of "What I teach is of great value because I say it is."

I fully agree that education should provide basic skills such as writing, mathematics, and the knowledge of how our government and economy work. I suggest to Chancellor Wharton that a good career education program may provide these skills equally as well as or better than many university programs. I also acknowledge that some career education programs do little in these areas, as university training too often does little in the practical aspects of these areas.

—Walter Mitschele, *instructor and coordinator, Agri-Business Department, Muscatine (Iowa) Community College.*

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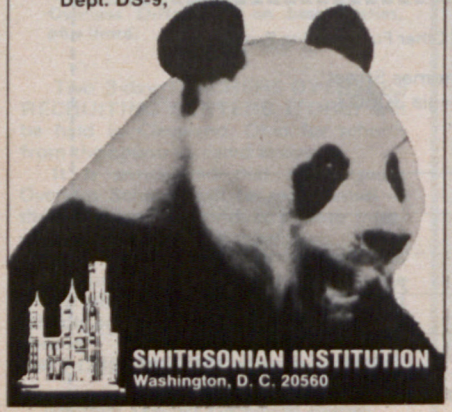

SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION
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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 36

The Teacher as a Consumer

Debt Collectors

Thanks to new laws and consumer assertiveness, it's easier than ever for consumers—including teachers—to obtain credit. And as inflation nibbles at purchasing power, the need arises now and again for them to "buy money" to purchase needed goods or services.

But while credit has become more accessible, there has been a companion rise in consumer debt. In April 1978, some $25 billion was lent to consumers; the total amount of consumer debt outstanding that month was $238 billion, however. In April 1979, $26 billion was lent, and the total amount of outstanding consumer debt had risen to $282 billion. The totals are still rising.

These debts have to be collected. In the past, practices for collecting personal, family, or household debts that were overdue ranged from the cordial to the horrendous. Some practices at the latter end of the scale were so outrageous and humiliating to debtors that the U.S. Congress finally stepped in with the Fair Debt Collection Practices Act. This law, which went into effect on March 20, 1978, covers debts incurred for purchases such as cars, medical care, and charge-account transactions.

The law applies to debt collectors—*not* creditors. It does not erase legitimate debts consumers have incurred. But it does protect debtors from a variety of offensive debt collection practices that used to occur, such as these:

- *Harassment and abuse.* A debt collector can no longer use threats of violence or harm to anyone's property, person, or reputation. Obscene or profane language is out. Abusive phone calls, repeated calls for the purpose of annoyance, telephoning without giving full identification—these practices by debt collectors are against the law. Nor can collectors publish debtors' names or in any way advertise their debt.
- *Falsehoods.* Debt collectors can't imply that they are lawyers or agents of the federal or state government or that they work for a credit bureau. They must not misrepresent the amount of a debt or imply that a consumer has committed a crime by not paying a debt. Those falsehoods may have been used in the past; they can't be used any longer.

(continued on page 93)

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2203 You're special.

2493 If you see someone without a smile, give them one of yours.

2319 When you come to the end of your rope, make a knot, and hang on.

2628 It's hard to be humble when you're as good as I am.

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2830 I don't need a great deal of love, but I do need a steady supply.

2832 We all make mistakes.

2417 Love is like the moon: Beautiful and ever new.

2399 To know me is to love me.

2456 If you want a friend, be a friend.

2187 We're all in this together.

2479 I always see better with my heart.

2549 A friend is one who comes in when the whole world has gone out.

2353 Do not pray for an easy life. Pray to be a strong person.

2397 The pursuit of truth will set you free—even if you never catch up with it.

Happiness is like a butterfly.
The more you chase it, the more it will elude you.
But if you turn your attention to other things,
It comes and softly sits on your shoulder.

370 Happiness is like a butterfly. The more you chase it, the more it will elude you. But if you turn your attention to other things, it comes and softly sits on your shoulder.

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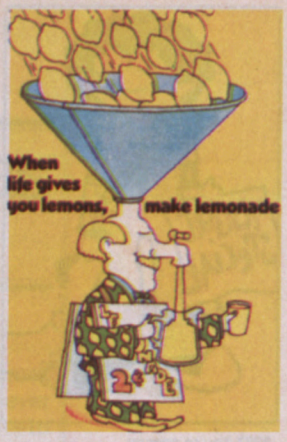
2186 We need each other.

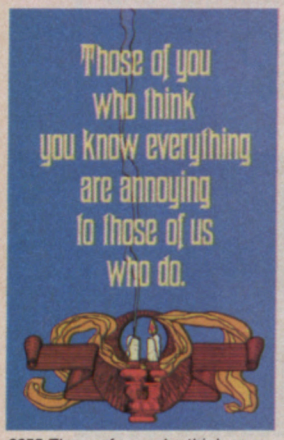
2280 See, I make all things new.

756 Things take time.



724 When life gives you lemons, make lemonade

2166 We do not remember days, we remember moments.



2055 Those of you who think you know everything are annoying to those of us who do.

687 No act of kindness, no matter how small, is ever wasted.

2715 Let there be peace on earth and let it begin with me.

2630 Some people make the world more special just by being in it.

2469 You have only to open your eyes to see the hand of God.

2196 I may have my faults, but being wrong isn't one of them.

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2595 The smallest good deed is better than the grandest good intention.

2783 Be good to yourself now and then.

2092 A ship in a harbor is safe, but that is not what ships are built for.

COMPLAINT FORM

Please write your complaint in the square below. Write legibly.

2208 Complaint Form. Please write your complaint in the square below. Write legibly.

2226 In every living thing is the spirit to be free.

2537 Love understands and therefore waits.

2330 Climb high. Climb far. Your goal the sky. Your aim the star!

2584 Sometimes you have to go out on a limb.

2219 It is hard to be good.

2682 Thank you for NOT SMOKING.

2570 To a friend's house the road is never long.

2523 If your heart is full of love, you always have something to give.

2344 I wake up slow.

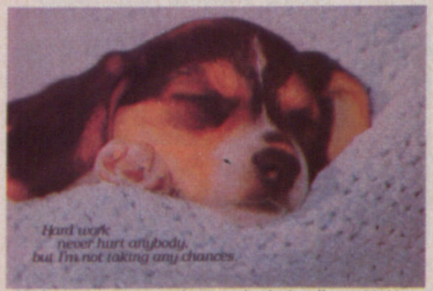
2407 Happiness is found along the way, not at the end of the road.

2590 The greatest thing in life is to be needed.

660 They can because they think they can.

2451 Quiet moments are life's rewards.

2121 When you dream, dream big!

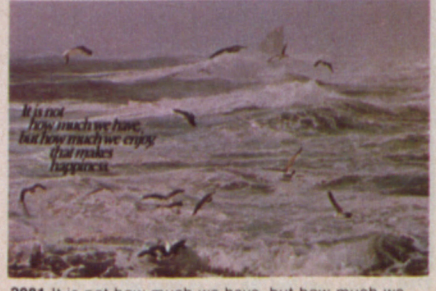


2709 Hard work never hurt anybody, but I'm not taking any chances.

2438 Hold to a true friend with both your hands.

2607 Don't fuss! Just treat me like any other great person.

2572 I am not afraid of tomorrow, for I have seen yesterday and I love today.



2081 It is not how much we have, but how much we enjoy, that makes happiness.

2367 The more I study, the more I know. The more I know, the more I forget. The more I forget, the less I know. So why study?

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QTY.	CAT. NO.	TITLE
____	354	Happy are
____	370	Happiness is
____	404	Jesus of
____	660	They can
____	687	No act of
____	724	When life
____	756	Things take
____	760	If you do not
____	2055	Those of you
____	2081	It is not how
____	2092	A ship in a
____	2121	When you
____	2166	We do not
____	2186	We need each
____	2187	We're all in
____	2196	I may have
____	2203	You're special
____	2208	Complaint
____	2219	It is hard to
____	2226	In every living
____	2280	See, I make
____	2319	When you
____	2330	Climb high
____	2344	I wake up
____	2353	Do not pray
____	2367	The more I
____	2393	Things are
____	2397	The pursuit of
____	2399	To know me
____	2407	Happiness is
____	2417	Love is like
____	2432	It's nice to be
____	2438	Hold to a true
____	2439	Everybody has
____	2446	Happiness is
____	2448	Nothing
____	2451	Quiet moments
____	2456	If you want a
____	2469	You have only
____	2479	I always see
____	2492	I am wanting
____	2493	If you see
____	2503	We all have our
____	2504	I am easy to
____	2523	If your heart
____	2537	Love understands
____	2549	A friend is one
____	2570	To a friend's
____	2572	I am not afraid
____	2584	Sometimes you
____	2586	My friend is
____	2590	The greatest
____	2591	Following the
____	2595	The smallest
____	2607	Don't fuss!
____	2628	It's hard to be
____	2630	Some people
____	2682	Thank you
____	2709	Hard work never hurt
____	2715	Let there be peace
____	2757	I have tried so hard
____	2760	Do you ever feel like
____	2783	Be good to yourself
____	2830	I don't need a great
____	2832	We all make mistakes.

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 1

2757 I have tried so hard to become what I ought to be that I forgot what I am.

2503 We all have our hang-ups.

760 If you do not understand my silence, you will not understand my words.

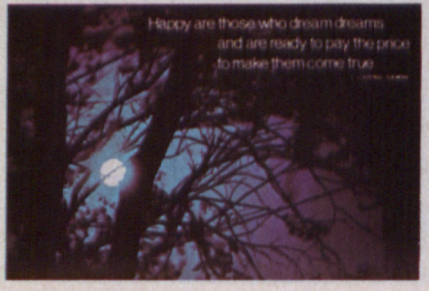
2439 Everybody has a right to my opinion.

2432 It's nice to be liked just the way you are.

2591 Following the crowd can lead nowhere.

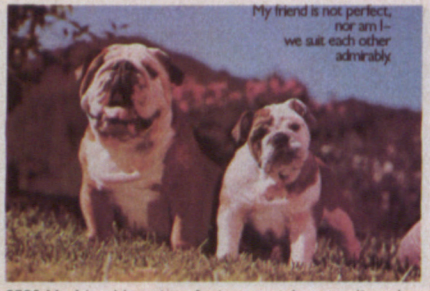
2393 Things are always at their best in their beginning.

2504 I am easy to please as long as I have things my way.



354 Happy are those who dream dreams and are ready to pay the price to make them come true.

404 Jesus of Nazareth requests the honor of your presence at a dinner to be given in his honor.



2586 My friend is not perfect, nor am I—we suit each other admirably.

2760 Do you ever feel like you've been left out in the cold?

The Teacher as a Consumer

(continued)

• *Unfairness.* A debt is a private matter, and Congress wants to keep it that way. Therefore, a debt collector cannot send a debtor a notice by postcard. Only the collector's name and return address can appear on an envelope sent to a debtor; nothing else is allowed that might indicate that the envelope contains a message about a debt. Also, collectors should not telephone or telegraph collect to debtors; the latter don't have to accept the charges.

It is also against the law for collectors to call debtors' work places or to talk about their debts with their business associates—in the case of teachers, with principals, colleagues, or school board members, for example.

Of course, the law isn't all on the side of the consumer; the creditor needs protection as well. The creditor's debt collection agency may contact any person or agency to try to locate a debtor, but the reason for the search may not be discussed. Within five days after contacting a debtor, a debt collector must send him or her a written notice telling how much is owed and to what creditor and explaining what to do if the debtor thinks he or she does not owe the money. This straightforward kind of communication protects both creditor and debtor. Once it has been made, the debt collection process can be an orderly and fair one, even if there is a dispute about the amount owed. (For more information on the process for resolving this kind of dispute, write to the Federal Trade Commission, Debt Collection Practices, Washington, DC 20580.)

The Fair Debt Collection Practices Act has been in effect for less than two years, and some obnoxious practices have proven slow to disappear. For example, a few debt collectors still threaten debtors with court action when in fact they plan no such action. Sometimes this threat will be contained in a letter that says something like this: "Unless you pay your debt within 48 hours, you will face legal action." Alan Reffkin, the attorney who manages the Fair Debt Collection Practices project for the Federal Trade Commission (FTC), says that the usual step after this letter "may be just another letter. It's an old trick—a scare here and a threat there—but debt collectors can't use those tricks any longer."

Some collectors haven't gotten the message yet, however. When dealing with them, what is the debtor's defense? First, a debtor should write the collector a letter saying he or she knows the amount owed and the creditor to whom it is owed and that he or she intends to pay the debt. The letter should also include the schedule of payments the debtor hopes to follow. A copy should go to the creditor and for information purposes to the FTC. This should stop the harassment.

If it does not, a debtor may sue. The Act makes it possible for consumers to take direct legal action against debt collectors who are abusive or unfair or who are harassing them. (*Note:* Under the terms of the Act, a debtor can sue the collector, *not* the creditor.)

The law permits debtors to recover actual damages as well as additional damages of up to $1,000. Debtors may find it useful to use the services of a private attorney since unfamiliarity with courtroom procedures prevents many litigants who represent themselves from taking full advantage of their rights. But debtors who sue should proceed with caution and talk over fees with their attorneys *before* they sue. Although the law allows the court to award reasonable attorney's fees to debtors who win their suits, they should make sure that their attorney will settle for that fee. Otherwise, they may win the case against a debt collector but wind up in debt to an attorney.

Also, debtors should be sure that they really have a case, that their facts are right, that they are seeking justice in good faith, and that they are not suing just to harass the debt collector. If they proceed in bad faith and for the purpose of harassing the collector and then lose the case, the court may order them to pay the collector's attorney's fees!

The ultimate question for any wise consumer who is considering incurring a debt is this: "Can I afford to carry this additional debt?" A family or job crisis may leave individuals with no alternative but new debt, and they may have to go into the marketplace—perhaps quickly—to seek additional credit. But regardless of the circumstances under which they incur debt, consumers have the right to repay it under the protections of fair play and privacy. That's the law.

—Theodore O. Cron, *director of consumer education, Bureau of Consumer Protection, Federal Trade Commission; and former secondary school teacher.*

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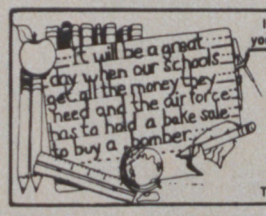

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6th Grade Teacher, Gossler School,
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2
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Classroom Tips

By JANE TYLOR FIELD
Retired Teacher of English and Creative Writing, Chula Vista, California.

These are suggestions made or collected by Ms. Field, and she urges NEA members to send in interesting and useful teaching ideas on the elementary and secondary levels for possible use in future issues of Today's Education. *Ms. Field asks that those who submit classroom tips keep copies of their material, as she cannot return the originals.*

Mail suggestions to Box CT, Today's Education, *1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.*

How does it feel to be handicapped? "The Kids on the Block" is a puppet show put together to help nonhandicapped children understand handicaps. Created by Barbara Aiello and constructed by Ingrid Crepeau of Washington, DC, the puppets in the presentation are Mark, who has cerebral palsy; Renaldo, who is blind; Mandy, who is deaf; Ellen Jane, who is mentally retarded; and two "normal" friends who play with them and ask leading questions.

Sample questions asked of puppet Mark: "How do you go to the bathroom?" "How do you play?"

Answers: "I use special handrails my family installed for me." "I play marbles, Monopoly, checkers—just like the other kids."

During the show, Mark says that he calls his wheelchair "Cruiser" because he can do "wheelies" (a wheelchair trick similar to the motorcycle trick of leaning back on one wheel) in it. Renaldo explains Braille and demonstrates his Braille watch. Mandy teaches the audience a song in sign language. Ellen Jane reveals that although she is slow in grasping new information, she has a job as an aide in a veterinarian's office.

The "handicapped" puppets are part of a kit. They are nearly life-sized and come with the accoutrements necessary for their problems—white cane, hearing aid, wheelchair, glasses. The kit also contains 30 Braille cards for the class to examine, and audio cassettes of each script. It is expensive (more than $2,000), but as a district purchase, it could be used many times and for many years. (To find out more, write to Ms. Aiello, Suite 510, the Washington Bldg., Washington, DC 20005.)

Whether you use the puppets or not, handicapped children in the classroom themselves might enjoy the spotlight and the chance to enlighten their peers about their difficulties. Most children are matter-of-fact about their physical problems and welcome questions from other children.

Besides learning that the handicapped are people first of all, children also realize from these discussions and presentations that they can appreciate each other's differences and that handicapped and nonhandicapped children can be friends.

"The Kids on the Block" will be featured on a CBS-TV-special on Thanksgiving Day.

Kid Power, Inc. (KPI) was devised because most young people *do* want to be kind. Several students at Memorial Junior High School, Vineland, New Jersey, and their social science teacher, Tony De Nofio, organized the club. Its purpose is to help out at the American Institute of Mental Studies (A.I.M.S.), the famous training school for the mentally retarded, also in Vineland.

KPI members have spent Saturdays at A.I.M.S. painting a barn and fence posts, cleaning the barn, pulling weeds, stacking bales of hay. On holidays, they have entertained A.I.M.S. students by dressing in appropriate costumes and distributing goodies.

KPI has proved so popular that there is always a long waiting list for membership, and many have been turned away.

How about giving recognition to bright lights in academic fields? Students might write letters of appreciation to the authors of books they have read or to musicians whose performances they have attended or whose records they enjoy.

If the community has an art museum, artists who are "hung" there might very well respond to written thank yous from students who enjoy their work. Such a reply might be the start of an autograph collection—or even a friendship.

Linda D. Olsen, media specialist at Colma Intermediate School in Daly City, California, suggests a new tape recorder technology known as Variable Speech Control (VSC) to help secondary students increase their reading speeds and thus keep up with reading assignments.

The VSC method makes use of a special kind of tape recorder called a speech controller. This device allows the user to play back material on an audio cassette at a speed faster or slower than the one at which it was originally recorded and without distorting pitch. This technology makes a number of exercises possible. For example, a student can read material while listening to a cassette recording of its being played at increasingly faster speeds. This results in increased reading speed, which continues even after the tape recorder has been turned off. Similarly, a student who is having difficulty keeping up with an assignment, such as reading a novel, can follow the story in print while listening to its being read aloud at a rate almost as fast as a so-called good reader could read it silently.

To prepare compressed material, it's a good idea to make the original recording on an open-reel tape, so that mistakes, noise, etc., can be edited out. Then the edited version can be transferred to a cassette for use with the variable speed controller.

Speed increases of up to 75 percent (for example, from 150 to 263 spoken words per minute) can almost approximate the speed of silent reading and yet not distort the human voice. To get listeners used to hearing the faster rate, the cassette should start at the speed of normal speech, working up to the accelerated rate over a period of about five minutes.

Students in special education, foreign language, and bilingual classes are using this technology that allows them to play tapes at the speed that meets their needs. Teachers are using the VSC to speed up the previewing and editing of audiovisual materials.

David W. Gurney, an assistant professor of education at the University of Central Florida, feels that foreign language and/or social studies students can profit from examining their family backgrounds. Where did this Christmas recipe come from? This special decoration? This unusual custom? What personal attributes are owed to ancestors

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Classroom Tips

(continued)

from what lands?

Dr. Gurney feels that with a knowledge of their family background, youngsters may better understand their own reactions to situations and happenings. From their inquiries, individuals can pull everything together and make presentations about their heritage. They might devise bulletin board displays and maps to illustrate their findings.

Dr. Gurney has prepared a questionnaire to help students get started. Anyone interested in more details may write to him at the University of Central Florida, Box 25000, Orlando, FL 32816.

Teachers may ignore television because they feel that it threatens them. But this attitude means missing an opportunity to help students make sensible consumer decisions and improve their use of language and logic. So says Lynne Brenner Ganek, reading and language arts teacher at the N. K. Brampton School in South Bound Brook, New Jersey, and a member of two groups evaluating children's television. Ms. Ganek suggests using television in some of the following ways:

1. Visit a TV station.
2. Compare advertisements of a product with the real item. See whether TV advertisers use propaganda techniques to promote their products.
3. Have a broadcaster or advertiser visit the class and speak to the group about some aspect of his or her work.
4. Invite a police officer to tell how his or her experiences compare with those of police officers on police shows.
5. Categorize shows (doctor, police, game, talk, situation comedy, etc.) and have students write a composition, analyzing and comparing two or more types.
6. Analyze the Nielsen ratings and discuss how they affect TV programming.
7. Get copies of the Federal Communications Commission's regulations on TV and discuss them and their effects on the industry.
8. Look for examples of sex-role, racial, and ethnic stereotyping on TV programs. Discuss these.
9. Teach letter writing by having students write letters to television stations and advertisers, praising or damning what they are doing on TV. □

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Name _____ Address _____ Phone _____

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Enter your students in the $30,000 Q-tips® Art Contest.

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They may build sculptures with Q-tips. Or create paintings using Q-tips instead of brushes. Or make anything, as long as it's executed with Q-tips Cotton Swabs.

Your students can win lots of prizes: a grand prize of an $8,000 U.S. Savings Bond and an "Art Experience" trip to New York City. Eight first prizes of a $1,500 Savings Bond. Eight second prizes of a $500 Savings Bond. Eight third prizes of a $100 Savings Bond. And 64 fourth prizes of a $50 Savings Bond.

Each grade (1-8) will have a first, second and third prize winner. Eight children from each grade will win a fourth prize. And everyone who enters will win a Certificate of Merit.

If one of your students wins a grand prize or first prize, your school will also receive $500.

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Your name will be entered once for each student entry. So the more students you enter, the more chances you have to win.

The 1978 winner, Deborah Ranish.

Here's how your students can enter. Contest rules may have already been sent to your school's principal. If not, you can write directly to: Q-tips Art Contest, P.O. Box 9273, Blair, Nebraska 68009 for rules and entry forms or call collect: (402) 426-4701.

All entries will be judged at the Children's Museum of The Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York, where the grand prize winning creation will be on display. Winners will be chosen on the basis of creativity, age, inventiveness, technique, composition and design.

Entries must be received by January 31, 1980. (Contest void where prohibited.)

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Area Code Tel. No. _____ No. Members Selling _____ Sponsoring Institution _____

SHIP TO: Give a business address to which shipment may be made (office, store, school, church, gas station, etc.) to avoid possible extra charges for delivery to a residence. No shipments to P.O. Box addresses.

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Attn. of: _____

Business Name _____ Business A/C Tel. No. _____

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Name _____

Street Address _____ City _____ State _____

Position _____ Tel. No. _____ Zip _____

Name _____

Street Address _____ City _____ State _____

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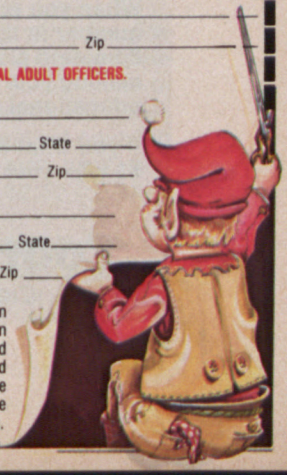

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Free or Inexpensive

Bilingual and ESL Education

The following publications are available from the Language People, Institute of Modern Languages, Inc., 2622 Pittman Dr., Silver Spring, MD 20910.

Communications Skillbook 2: Growing with English. John Crow and Nancy Strickland. Designed for the advanced beginning English as a Second Language (ESL) student to help perfect his or her use of English. 1979. 100 pp. $3.95.

The Ideabook: A Resource Manual for Teachers of English as a Second Language. David Holdzkom. Details 25 activities designed for ESL students. 1979. 64 pp. $5.95.

Mother Tongue or Second Language? On the Teaching of Reading in Multilingual Societies. Edited by Dina Feitelson. Developed from papers presented at the Sixth World Conference on Reading. Reports on problems of bilingualism for English-speaking people and people for whom English is neither the first nor the second language. 1979. 111 pp. $5, nonmember price; $3.50, member price. International Reading Assn., 800 Barksdale Rd., Newark, DE 19711.

Careers and Scholarships

Career Communicator. Quarterly newsletter, designed for high school students, that discusses the job outlook, educational trends, and the future course of the U.S. labor force. Free to teachers, guidance counselors, and principals. ITT Educational Services, Inc.; Marketing, Research, and Communications; 3750 Guion Rd.; Indianapolis, IN 46222.

Guide to the Literature of Student Financial Aid. Jerry S. Davis and William D. Van Dusen. Bibliography. Includes information about the history, philosophy, and purpose of aid; the administration, management, and problems of aid; and federal and state issues. 1978. 166 pp. $7. College Board Publications Orders, Box 2815, Princeton, NJ 08541.

Elementary

The following coloring books are available from Spizzirri Pub. Co., Inc., 613 Lunt, Schaumburg, IL 60193. Two series of books, one based on the collection in Chicago's Field Museum of Natural History and the other based on the collection in its Museum of Science and Industry. Text written in both English and Spanish. 1979. 31 pp. $2.50 each.

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Sharing the Street: Activities for All Children. Barbara Kolusci. Based on the *Sesame Street* television series. Suggests games and activities for pre-K through elementary grades. Designed for all children, including those with disabilities. 1978. 96 pp. $2 (quantity discounts available). Community Education Services, Dept. A, Children's Television Workshop, One Lincoln Plaza, New York 10023.

Write Your Own Story Coloring Book. Anna Ponaska. Centers on three characters—Penny, Mark, and Koko—in routine situations, such as riding in a car, and in extraordinary situations, such as meeting ice elves. Provides a page beside each illustration for the child to write his or her own story. 1979. 48 pp. $1.50. Dover Pub., Inc., 180 Varick St., New York 10014.

Language Arts

How To Find What You Want in the Library. Charlotte Gorden. Discusses the card catalog, the classification system, the periodical indexes, and the location of books. Includes annotations for more than 25 general and 85 specialized references, information on writing a thesis or research paper, and self-checking exercises and search questions. 1979. 144 pp. $3.95. Barron's Educational Series, Inc., 113 Crossways Park Dr., Woodbury, New York 11797.

The following publications are available from the Natl. Council of Teachers of English, 1111 Kenyon Rd., Urbana, IL 61801.

In Search of Ernest Hemingway: A Model for Teaching a Literature Seminar. Brooke Workman. A semester course for studying Hemingway's works. Designed to help high school students improve their writing skills and acquire the habit of critical thinking. Includes schedule, lesson plans, suggestions for effective ways to carry out class activities, sample papers written by students, and a bibliography. 1979. 111 pp. $6, nonmember price; $5, member price.

Listening: Its Impact at All Levels on Reading and Other Language Arts. Revised. Sara W. Lundsteen. Designed to help teachers develop their students' listening skills. Includes classroom activities and games. 1979. 170 pp. $6, nonmember price; $5.25, member price.

Mathematics

The following publications are available from the Natl. Council of Teachers of Mathematics, 1906 Association Dr., Reston, VA 22091.

Cryptarithms. Josephine Andree and Richard V. Andree. Contains puzzles that substitute letters for digits in simple arithmetic problems. Designed as a study in logic for high school students. 1978. 186 pp. $3.60, nonmember price; $2.88, member price.

Mathematics and Humor. Edited by Aggie Vinik, Linda Silvey, and Barnabas Hughes. Contains a collection of jokes, riddles, and cartoons for use on bulletin boards and test papers to stir student interest. Designed for junior and senior high school students. 1978. 58 pp. $4, nonmember price; $3.20, member price.

Mathematical History: Activities, Puzzles, Stories, and Games. Merle Mitchell. Contains puzzles and games based on stories of famous mathematicians' lives, numerals of ancient peoples, and numerology. Designed to enliven the study of mathematics in the middle grades. Includes removable activity pages for duplicating. 1978. 74 pp. $5, nonmember price; $4, member price.

Math Made Fun for the Young Child. Cleatus Moorehead. Designed to introduce kindergartners to math skills. Contains 45 items, some of which are related to the seasons or to specific holidays. 1979. 96 pp. $7.95. Broadman Press, 127 9th Ave., N., Nashville, TN 37234.

Science

The following educational kits are available from the Thomas Alva Edison Foundation, Cambridge Office Plaza, Suite 143, 18280 W. Ten Mile Rd., Southfield, MI 48075. Centered around the centennial of Edison's invention of the light bulb, each kit includes a teacher's guide, six spirit duplicating masters, and a wall chart. 1979. $2 each.

A Century of Light: An Activity Program for Grades K-3. Discusses major inventors and inventions of the last 100 years.

A Century of Light: An Activity Program for Grades 4-6. Discusses the importance of technology in our lives and presents scientific principles.

A Century of Light: An Activity Program for the Upper Grades. Designed for junior and senior high school students. Assesses the improvement of the quality of life through inventions, through energy availability, and through technological improvements. Provides opportunities for problem-solving and simple experiments.

The following publications are available from the National Science Teachers Assn., 1742 Connecticut Ave., N.W., Washington, DC 20009.

How To Activities in Meteorology. Donald N. Nimmer and Richard L. Sagness. Designed for junior and senior high school students. 1978. 12 pp. $1.

How To Activities in Physical Oceanography. Donald N. Nimmer and Richard L. Sagness. Designed for junior and senior high school students. 1978. 8 pp. $1.

Sourcebook: Science Education for the Physically Handicapped. Edited by Helenmarie Hofman and Kenneth S. Ricker. Includes chapters on law and the handicapped; teacher training; resources; visual, auditory, and orthopedic handicaps; and careers. 1979. 284 pp. $6.

The following publications are available from the Supt. of Documents, U.S. Govt. Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402.

National Solar Energy Education Directory. Lists solar-related courses, programs, and curriculums offered at 700 postsecondary institutions nationwide. Stock No. 061-000-00210-3. 1979. 279 pp. $4.75.

Space Shuttle. Discusses the future plans and goals for the space shuttle and how it will impact on life. Includes colorful, detailed drawings. Stock No. 033-000-00651-9. 1977. 89 pp. $2.50.

Space Shuttle. Wall chart, 41″ x 30″, to be used as a companion piece with book of the same name listed above. Stock No. 033-000-00743-4. 1977. $1.60.

The following publications are available from the Center for Renewable Resources, 1001 Connecticut Ave., N.W., 5th Floor, Washington, DC 20036.

Solar Energy Bibliography for Elementary, Secondary, and College Students. Reference guide to hundreds of solar publications and audiovisual materials. Includes annotated list covering materials on the sun, water, wind, and biomass. 1979. 44 pp. $2.50 (quantity discounts available).

Solar Energy Education Packet for Elementary and Secondary Students. Interdisciplinary selection of solar activ-

ities; reading lessons; and background materials about the sun, water, wind, and biomass. Includes more than 25 simple student projects and an annotated bibliography of K-12 solar publications. 1979. 60 pp. $3.75 (quantity discounts available).

Social Studies

China: Geography, History, Customs, Festivals, Food. Jean Burchfield. Illustrated by Linda Simmons. Traces China's origins from prehistoric times through the dynasties to post-Mao developments. Discusses politics, the arts, philosophy and religion, folk customs, cuisine, and science and technology. Recommended for ages nine through 15. 1979. 34 pp. $1.25. Youth Publications, Saturday Evening Post Co., 1100 Waterway Blvd., P.O. Box 1463, Indianapolis, IN 46206.

The Famous Voyage of Sir Francis Drake. Multilevel interdisciplinary learning packets that relate to Sir Francis Drake and the period of exploration and discovery. Contain reproducible activity sheets. Developed under a grant from the National Endowment for the Humanities. 1979. Free. The Museum of Our National Heritage, 33 Marrett Rd., P.O. Box 519, Lexington, MA 02173.

Science and Society: Knowing, Teaching, Learning. Edited by Cheryl Charles and Bob Samples. A collection of essays compiled for social studies/social science educators. Includes essays by Carl Rogers, Rollo May, Margaret Mead, William Herrmann, Andrew Young, and Jonas Salk. Natl. Council for the Social Studies, Suite 400, 2030 M Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

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Please use stock numbers (shown in parentheses) and enclose payment for orders under $10. Mail to NEA Distribution Center, the Academic Bldg., Saw Mill Rd., West Haven, CT 06516.

Movement Education. Robert E. Gensemer. Presents the ancient ideal of mind-body integration and applies it to motor learning by means of a problem-solving approach. Provides numerous examples of specific lessons, many of which require no special equipment. 80 pp. 1979. (1823-0-0F) $4.25.

Reading Instruction in the Middle School. Gary and Maryann Manning. Emphasizes the necessity for a developmental reading program as a whole-school approach and provides middle school teachers with concrete suggestions, activities, and strategies for teaching reading. 96 pp. 1979. (1707-2-0F) $4.50.

The Beginning Teacher: A Practical Guide to Problem Solving. Robert J. Krajewski and R. Baird Shuman. A realistic, comprehensive approach for beginning teachers, college personnel who train teachers, and present K-12 personnel who work with beginning teachers. Uses case studies throughout to demonstrate theoretical bases. 128 pp. 1979. (1489-8-0F) $5.75.

People, Law, and the Futures Perspective. Betty Barclay Franks and Mary Kay Howard. Provides an interdisciplinary unit which will be useful to educators at most grade levels. Gives specific activities and sources. Arranged around five topics: Change, Rights, Law, Crime, and Justice. 56 pp. 1979. (1676-9-0F) $2.50.

Manipulative Activities and Games in the Mathematics Classroom. Lee E. Vochko, editor. Twenty-two practical, easy-to-adopt approaches for interesting students in mathematical concepts that are troublesome for many teachers. Reflects a broad and varied viewpoint in the individual chapters, which treat such topics as problem solving, the decimal system, computers in the classroom, place values, percentages, and fractions. 112 pp. 1979. (1706-4-0F) $6.

Teaching Styles as Related to Student Achievement. David L. Silvernail. A Special Report in NEA's *What Research Says to the Teacher* series. Reviews and summarizes extensive research findings on such key questions as What teaching activities enhance pupil learning? Are certain teaching styles and strategies more effective than others in helping students learn? How well do textbook theories hold up in the real world of the classroom? Includes a "Selected Reference" list of nearly 200 entries. 48 pp. 1979. (1049-3-0F) $1.25.

The Newspaper in the Classroom. Wm. Ray Heitzmann. Answers the needs of educators who turn to the newspaper as a motivational device to develop basic skills and to promote learning in various subject areas. A *What Research Says to the Teacher* report. Provides practical suggestions based upon research findings concerning classroom discussion, inner-city teaching, and opportunities within the subject areas. 32 pp. 1979. (1048-5-0F) 75¢.

Global Studies for American Schools. Howard D. Mehlinger, Harry Hutson, Victor Smith, and B'Ann Wright. Provides a strong rationale for teaching global studies throughout the curriculum and integrated throughout the grade levels. Gives practical approaches and teaching strategies through sample lessons for six units of study: The Planet Earth, Families, Community, Food and Energy, Working, and Human Rights. 88 pp. (1824-9-0F) $4.50.

Rankings of the States, 1979. NEA Research report. 60 pp. 1979. NEA members' price, (1660-2-0F) $3; nonmembers' price, (1660-2-1F) $9.

Today's Education Reprints. Popular selections from *Today's Education* reprinted in the Quick Reference Series. For a listing and prices, write to NEA Publishing, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036. □

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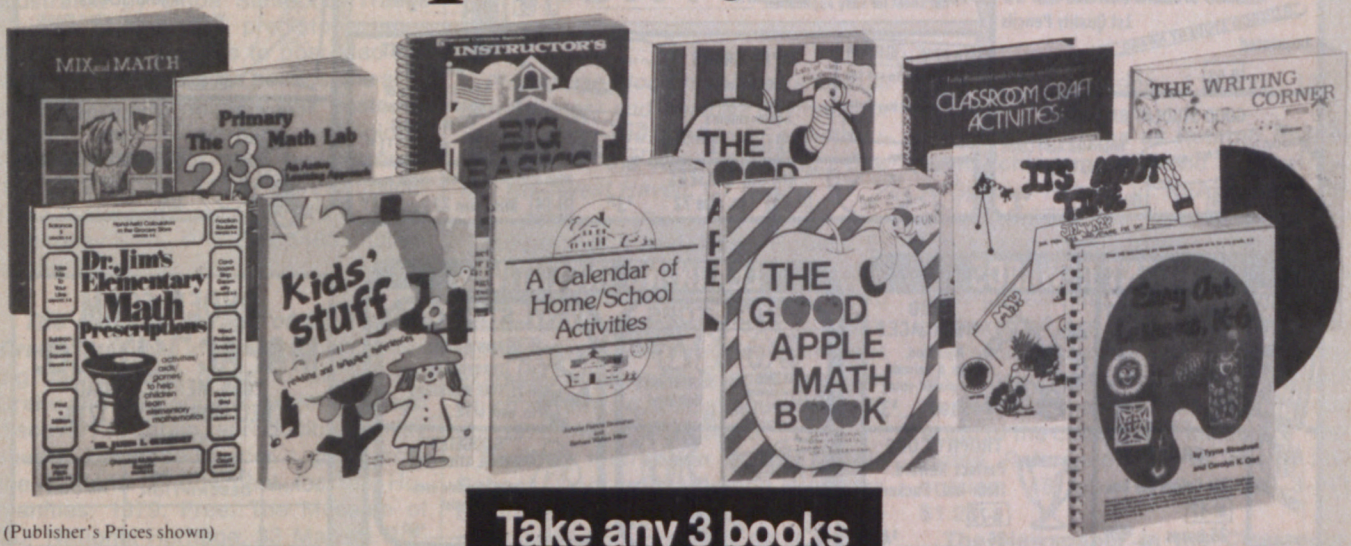

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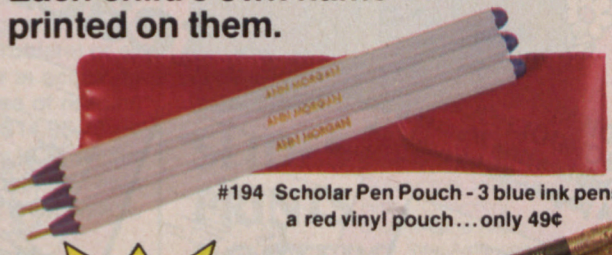

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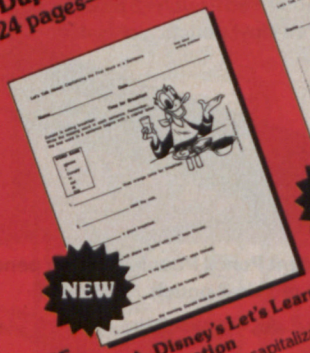

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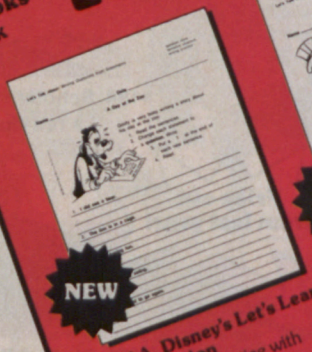

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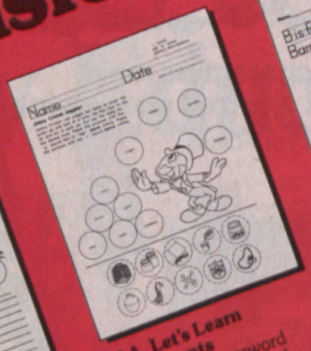

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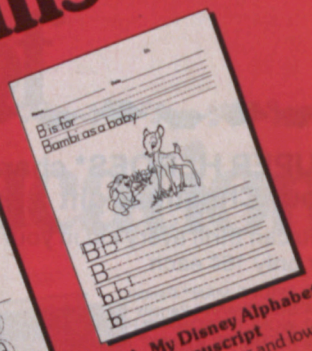

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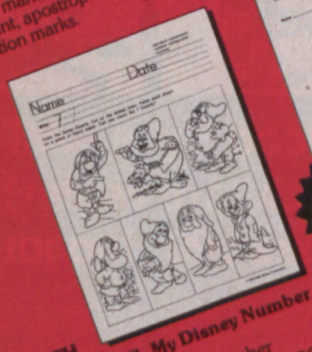

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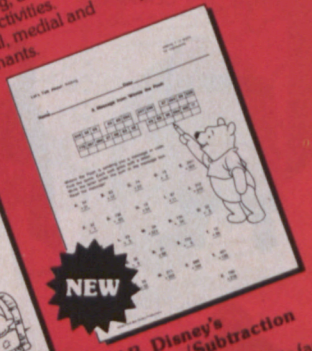

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In-Service Education Materials

Top-Rated In-Service Products for Individual Use

Some teachers participated in NEA's In-Service Education Project on their own rather than as members of Association groups. These individuals used and evaluated 22 in-service instructional materials and gave high ratings (4 points out of a possible 5) to several of them. The NEA In-Service Project, which was funded by the National Institute of Education, ended this year.

In making their ratings, the individual teacher evaluators used a number of criteria, such as the usefulness of the product in solving their particular problem, the clarity of its objectives, and the sequencing of its content. Descriptions of five of the favorite products follow.

Child Development: With Implications for Working with Disadvantaged Children. Mae Armster Christian. Attempts to promote better understanding of child development and the effects of the environment on that development, and in turn, upon the learning process. Contains five modules, each of which specifies procedures to follow in reaching this understanding. Also contains a 30-page booklet which includes topics such as the developing child from birth to adulthood and the effects of cultural deprivation on the developing child and the early adolescent. 1972, 1974, 1976. $1.50. Charles Johnson, University of Georgia, College of Education, Athens, GA 30601.

Attitudes and Reading. J. Estill Alexander and Ronald C. Filler. Focuses on students' attitudes toward reading and presents in detail several tools and techniques for assessing those attitudes. Gives explanations, with examples, of teaching strategies for building and maintaining healthy reading attitudes. Includes an up-to-date bibliography. 1976. 73 pp. $2.50 for International Reading Association (IRA) members; $3.50 for nonmembers. IRA, 800 Barksdale Rd., Newark, DE 19711.

Reading Correction Kit. Wilma H. Miller. Describes techniques and materials to use in correcting specific difficulties in all the major reading skills. Offers sample work sheets, devices, and games ready to be copied and used to correct reading difficulties at all grade levels. Can be used as a resource (by the teacher in dealing with a student's particular reading problem) or as a textbook (for the teacher in acquiring greater expertise in the area of reading instruction). 1975. 287 pp. $14.95. (Sold on a 10-day free-trial basis.) Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., Route 59 at Brook Hill Dr., West Nyack, NY 10994.

The Identification of the Gifted and Talented. Ruth A. Martinson. Provides methods of identifying gifted students, particularly among the disadvantaged. Includes a bibliography. 1975. 145 pp. $6.05. (Orders under $25 must be prepaid.) Council for Exceptional Children, 1920 Association Dr., Reston, VA 22091.

Media Technology—Making the Most of It. Phillip Lewis. Provides an overview of media technology. Includes topics such as the new applications for opaque and overhead projectors, AV devices for individualizing instruction, and innovative uses of copiers and duplicators. Includes 10 cassette tapes and 105 slides in transparent sheet holders. 1971. $135. (Can be previewed if a written request is sent to the distributor. Fifteen-day free trial. Previewers billed only for shipping charges.) Instructional Dynamics, Inc., 600 55th N. Lake Shore Dr., Suite 924, Chicago 60611.

—**Marija Futchs Fine,** *information specialist, NEA In-Service Education Project.*

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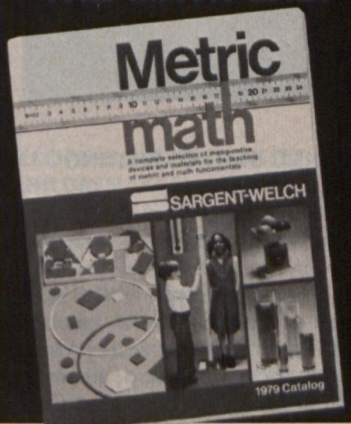

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with Anne Diskin

It's not a matter of philosophy. It's a fact. Most gifted children spend much of their time in the regular classroom. Meeting their needs must be the concern of regular classroom teachers and specialists alike. And it requires more than theories and taxonomies.

Drawing directly on her experience in both regular and special programs, Anne Diskin has designed this important new workshop to provide you with realistic, thoroughly practical strategies, techniques and activities you can begin using immediately with your gifted students—whatever the setting.

If you share Anne's vital interest in teaching the gifted, you'll find her workshop enormously stimulating and helpful.

SCHEDULE

CITIES	BLISS	DISKIN	HALLORAN	LEIBOWITZ	LINCOLN	SUID
Atlanta, GA		Jan. 31	Mar. 12			
Boston, MA	Mar. 19	Nov. 8	Mar. 26	Dec. 13	Feb. 27	Feb. 7
Chicago, IL	Nov. 14	Feb. 5	Nov. 13	Feb. 8	Feb. 28	Mar. 25
Cincinnati, OH	Mar. 4	Feb. 6	Nov. 14	Feb. 29		Mar. 27
Clark, NJ		Apr. 16	Nov. 7			
Cleveland, OH	Mar. 18	Nov. 16	Apr. 17	Feb. 28	Dec. 13	Mar. 26
Dallas, TX	Feb. 14	Mar. 28	Feb. 14	Nov. 15	Apr. 17	
Denver, CO		Dec. 7	Mar. 6	Mar. 21		
Detroit, MI	Nov. 13	Nov. 15	Apr. 16	Feb. 27	Dec. 12	Feb. 5
Grand Rapids, MI		Nov. 14	Apr. 15		Dec. 11	
Hartford, CT	Mar. 6	Apr. 18	Nov. 8	Feb. 7		Feb. 27
Houston, TX		Mar. 27	Feb. 13		Apr. 16	
Los Angeles, CA		Mar. 12	Dec. 4			
Manchester, NH		Nov. 9	Mar. 27			
Milwaukee, WI		Dec. 6	Mar. 4	Mar. 19		
Minneapolis, MN	Nov. 15	Dec. 5	Mar. 5	Mar. 20		Nov. 8
New York, NY	Mar. 5	Apr. 17	Nov. 6	Feb. 6		Feb. 28
Orlando, FL	Feb. 13	Feb. 1	Mar. 13	Nov. 16	Apr. 15	Feb. 29
Philadelphia, PA	Feb. 12	Feb. 7	Nov. 15	Dec. 12		
Portland, OR		Mar. 13	Dec. 5			Nov. 9
Rochester, NY	Mar. 20	Nov. 7	Mar. 25	Dec. 14	Feb. 26	Feb. 6
San Antonio, TX		Mar. 26	Feb. 12	Nov. 14		
San Francisco, CA		Mar. 14	Dec. 6			Nov. 6
Washington, D.C.		Jan. 30	Mar. 11			

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You see, Bill helps teachers do one thing best of all: He helps them turn their kids on to reading. He will share with you hundreds of classroom tested books that work with children—and scores of ideas for using those books to get your students reading, writing, speaking and listening in every subject you teach.

Some teachers say Bill is magic—but the real magic happens when you put the ideas to work in your own classroom to generate the love of reading and books so important to your children's current and future success.

BEATING STRESS AND BURNOUT (K–8)
with Marian Leibowitz

Marian Leibowitz believes that helping teachers deal with and overcome job related stress may well now be our biggest challenge. Her new workshop is a direct response to that challenge, offering thoroughly realistic, practical strategies you can begin using immediately to bring classroom pressures and demands under control.

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with Wanda Lincoln

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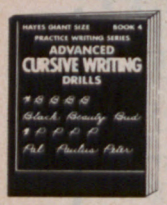

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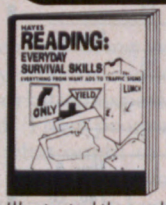

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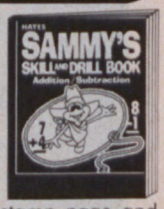

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Walkerton, Indiana

At American Family Life we realize that cancer can be a devastating reality. That is why we offer a cancer insurance policy. Yet it has been suggested recently that cancer insurance is bought out of fright rather than need—that it takes advantage of people.

A burning house is frightful.

So is an automobile accident.

That's why people buy and renew fire insurance and why state governments demand that drivers purchase and renew automobile insurance. Just in case.

An article in Parade magazine showed that Americans fear being struck by cancer more than any other disease.* Fear motivates the purchase and renewal of all insurance policies covering fire, flood, automobile accident or cancer. **People want to be prepared to face life's major problems. And let's face it. Cancer is one of them.**

At American Family Life we've built a $300,000,000 business from scratch in just 24 years. We're Georgia's largest insurance company in premium income. We offer a superior product with superior service. **We fill a real need at a price within reach of the average family.** Our reputation is based on our relationship to our policy holders. It is the reason for our success. We issued our first cancer policy in 1957. Today we have well over 4.7 million cancer policies in force. These policies cover over 7.5 million Americans. They also cover 4.5 million people in other countries.

Our renewal rate is one of the highest in the supplemental insurance industry.

"According to the American Cancer Society, the total cost of cancer-related medical bills was over $18 billion last year. As one official put it, 'The financial impact of cancer can be as deadly as the disease.'"[1]

In 1978, we paid over 90,000 cancer claims. Most were paid within three days after we received completed proof of loss. Our cancer insurance policies pay directly to the insured their full benefit. We do this in addition to sums paid to the insured by all other health insurers. Claims we've paid run from less than $50 on some skin cancers to $82,387.01 on one exceptionally long illness. In most cases, our check fills the gap between money spent by the insured and his family and money recovered from other insurance. We offer that additional edge. That's why our cancer policy is called "Supplemental Insurance."

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The care and treatment of cancer is more expensive than most other illnesses. People sometimes wonder if they could buy some extra general health insurance to cover the cost of cancer. If their money were applied to general health insurance, it could not offer the additional daily hospital dollars cancer care could require. It would be spread out over a large number of maladies. **"Because usual health insurance policies may not provide adequate coverage long enough when cancer strikes, cancer insurance is being taken out by more and more families."**[2] When money is put toward cancer insurance, that premium buys economically meaningful coverage for cancer only.

An independent study by a nationally renowned organization showed that over 90% of our cancer insurance claimants believe it is vital for treatment costs of the disease. The study noted that other health insurance does not cover the total cost of the disease. Fewer than half of the claimants involved in this study said they could have paid their uninsured expenses out of their savings or current income. **"Almost all general health insurance policies reimburse only between 30 and 60 percent of the actual cost of medical treatment."**[3] The study also determined that 96% of American Family Life's claimants would recommend our company's policy and service. American Family Corporation, our parent company, is strong financially. **We have an excellent record of paying our claims.** As much as cancer is a reality so is the proven value of cancer insurance. Proven by 24 years of excellent service to our policy holders. If you ever decide to purchase cancer insurance, we at American Family Life believe it should be available to you.

We do not solicit policyholders through advertisements in the mass media or through mass direct mail campaigns. This advertisement in accord with that policy should not be construed as a solicitation for the sale of insurance to anyone, but is simply a solemn statement of our company history, results and policy.

*A special Gallup poll released to Parade Magazine showed that 58% of Americans fear being struck by cancer, more than any other disease (blindness 21%, heart disease 10%, and others 2% or less).

[1] Family Circle April 24, 1978
[2] Washington Star Syndicate, Inc. January 8, 1978
[3] The Boston Herald American November 22, 1977

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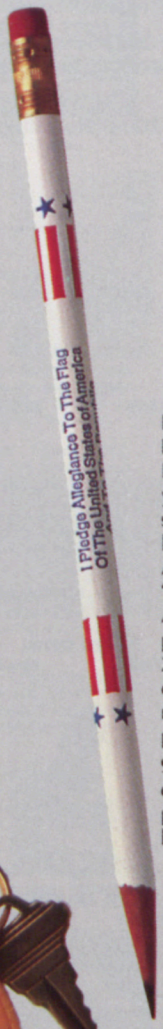

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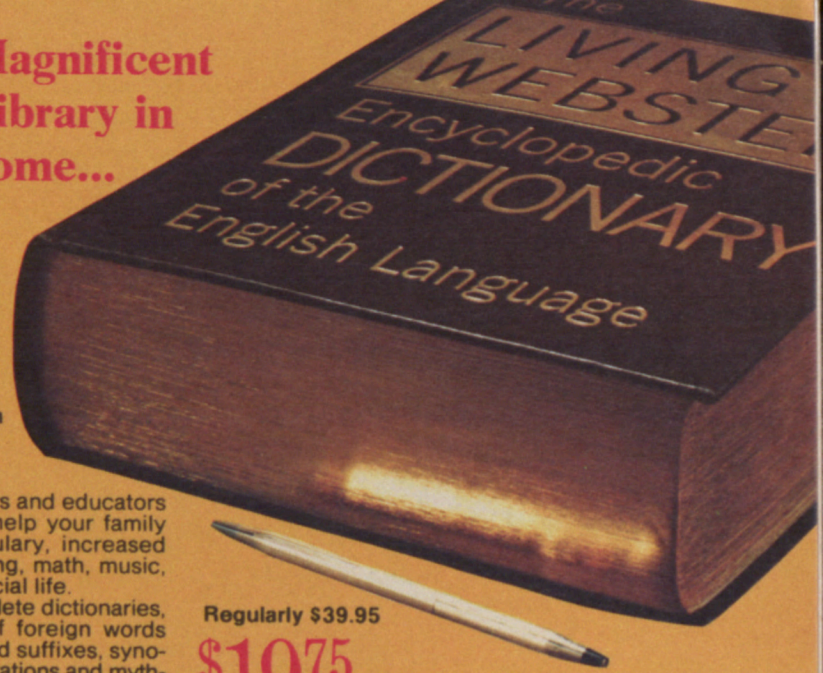

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